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COMPOSITION FOR NAVAL OFFICERS

BY

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U. S. Naval Academy



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PREFACE

The work in composition, as planned in this book, differs from the usual treatments of the subjects in that it is designed to meet the special needs of the naval officer. Much that is usually studied in text-books on composition is therefore omitted in order that certain essentials may be emphasized. The venerable band of brothers, Narration, Description, Exposition, and Argumentation, are here given a leave of absence in order that the midshipman may put his time and energy into the fundamentals of English and the specific forms of expression that he is bound to employ throughout his career. It is also the idea of the authors to condense the text in order that less time may be spent in reading advice about writing and more time put on actual writing. This book does not pretend to be a complete treatment of composition. It presupposes the presence of a trained instructor in the section room, who can be depended on to supplement the text whenever necessary.

A midshipman, soon after entering the Naval Academy, begins to learn the significance of the phrase, "officer and gentleman." The aim of this course in composition is to teach the midshipman to express himself in a style befitting his profession as an officer in the United States Navy and his breeding as a gentleman in the best American sense of that word. "Nor is any man," wrote Paul Jones, "fit to command a ship of war who is not capable of communicating his

ideas on paper in language that becomes his rank." In the first place, he must have something to say; then he must say it correctly, clearly, and concisely.

The three forms of composition that every naval officer will be called on to use are the letter, the report, and the speech. Hence these have been selected as the three disciplines of the course in composition at the Naval Academy: (1) The writing of letters, social and official; (2) the preparation of reports, chiefly naval; (3) the delivery of short speeches on matters of current interest or on topics suggested by selections in the text. For the conception of this course and for many ideas expressed in the pages of this book, the authors are indebted to Dr. C. Alphonso Smith, the Head of Department of English. To Rear Admiral Ralph Earle, U. S. N., Captain Louis M. Nulton, U. S. N., and Commander John Downes, U. S. N., the authors would express their appreciation for valuable assistance in the preparation of the chapter on official correspondence.

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PART I

THE FUNDAMENTALS

CHAPTER I

THE PARAGRAPH

The Origin of the Paragraph.—The paragraph is the most recent invention in writing. In origin it was simply a form of punctuation. Before the day of printing the great cost of parchment led the scribe to get as much writing as he could on every sheet. Consequently he ran words and sentences together in unbroken lines of lettering. But this practice made it difficult for the reader to pick out the words. A beginning in punctuation was made when dots were introduced to separate words from each other, and later capital letters were used to mark the beginning of a new sentence. But for a century and more after the introduction of printing there was no paragraphing. The printed pages were solid blocks of type with no break except the word spaces. The paragraph divisions of the King James Bible, known as "verses," were simply a device for convenience in responsive reading. An essay by Bacon, printed about the same time, shows no paragraphing whatever. During the seventeenth century, however, paragraphing established itself on account of the practical advantage of introducing a resting place for the eye. Later it became evident that the paragraph might have a real

meaning analogous to punctuation. Just as the period shows the end of one sentence and the capital shows the beginning of another, so the paragraph break could indicate the end of one group of related statements and the beginning of another.

The Paragraph as the Unit of Composition.—

Thus the paragraph has come to be regarded more as a group unit of sentences, or unit of composition, and it is as such that we shall study it in this chapter. The word "composition" means "putting together." But it is more than putting together—as bricks are put together in a pile—it is a fitting together, or structure. In our special use of the word we mean by "composition" a fitting together of ideas in writing or speaking. A sentence is simply the statement of one idea, but the paragraph is a group of sentences developing a larger idea. Hence it is a composition in miniature. The paragraph may be either complete in itself or a part of a larger composition, but in either case it is a thought unit of which the sentences are the parts. To use ship-building as an illustration, we may say that the separate beams, in one of the frames that form the ribs of the hull, correspond to the separate sentences, and the assembled frame corresponds to the paragraph.

Definition of the Paragraph.—We may define the paragraph, therefore, as a cluster of coöperative sentences, making clear a single thought. By the word "coöperative" is meant the team-work of the sentences in a paragraph; that is, they all work together to develop the thought that the paragraph represents.

Unity in the Paragraph.—The words "coöperative" and "team-work" indicate a single aim. A paragraph, therefore, must represent the development

of one definite idea. If that idea is complete, as in a short newspaper editorial, the paragraph stands by itself as a miniature composition. If the paragraph is part of a larger composition, then the idea it stands for must contribute one definite point to the thought of the whole composition. In either case the paragraph must be a unit.

The Topic Sentence.—The most practical aid to unity in the paragraph is the topic sentence. A topic sentence is the sentence that summarizes the thought of the entire paragraph. When a paragraph may be thus summed up, whatever else it lacks it has unity. If there are sentences that do not have direct bearing on the topic sentence, either the topic sentence is too narrow or, what is more likely, the paragraph is not a unit.

The topic sentence may be expressed or it may not be expressed. In a paragraph of description or narration it is neither necessary nor desirable to have a sentence like, "The dome of the Chapel is described here," or "I will now tell how the fullback made the last touchdown." In such cases the topic sentence is understood. But when the writer is discussing a subject—that is, when he uses explanation or argument to make clear his ideas—he will find that, as a general rule, a statement of the topic sentence in each paragraph is most helpful. It helps the writer himself to keep on the track of his thought and it helps the reader to follow on the track of the writer.

The position of the topic sentence may be anywhere in the paragraph, but the two most useful places are the beginning and the end. In the following examples notice how Lord Bryce opens his paragraph with its

topic sentence and how Herbert Spencer has reserved his topic sentence for the end.

Democracy has not only taught the Americans how to use liberty without abusing it, and how to secure equality: it has also taught them fraternity. That word has gone out of fashion in the Old World, and no wonder, considering what was done in its name in 1793, considering also that it still figures in the programme of assassins. Nevertheless there is in the United States a sort of kindliness, a sense of human fellowship, a recognition of the duty of mutual help owed by man to man, stronger than anywhere in the Old World, and certainly stronger than in the upper or middle classes of England, France, or Germany. The natural impulse of every citizen in America is to respect every other citizen, and to feel that citizenship constitutes a certain ground of respect. The idea of each man's equal rights is so fully realized that the rich or powerful man feels it no indignity to take his turn among the crowd, and does not expect any deference from the poorest. An individual employer of labour (for one cannot say the same of corporations) has, I think, a keener sense of his duty to those whom he employs than employers have in continental Europe. He has certainly a greater sense of responsibility for the use of his wealth. The number of gifts for benevolent and other public purposes, the number of educational, artistic, literary, and scientific foundations, is larger than even in Britain, the wealthiest and most liberal of European countries. Wealth is generally felt to be a trust, and exclusiveness condemned not merely as indicative of selfishness, but as a sort of offence against the public. No one, for instance, thinks of shutting up his pleasure-grounds; he seldom even builds a wall round them, but puts up low railings or a palisade, so that the sight of his trees and shrubs is enjoyed by passers-by. That any one should be permitted either by opinion or by law to seal up many square miles of beautiful mountain country against tourists or artists is to the ordinary American almost incredible. Such things are to him the marks of a land still groaning under feudal tyranny.

BRYCE, *American Commonwealth.*

Various subsidiary causes [of the immorality of trade] that might be assigned must be passed over in order that we may have space to deal with the chief cause. In an exhaustive statement something would have to be said on the credulity of consumers, which leads them to believe in representations of impossible advantages; and something, too, on their greediness, which, ever prompting them to look for more than they ought to get, encourages sellers to offer delusive bargains. The increased difficulty of living consequent on the growing pressure of population, might perhaps come in as a part cause; and that greater cost of bringing up a family, which results from the higher standard of education, might be added. But all these are relatively insignificant. The great inciter of these trading malpractices is, intense desire for wealth. And if we ask—Why this intense desire? the reply is—It results from the *indiscriminate respect paid to wealth*.


SPENCER, *The Morals of Trade*.

The example quoted from Lord Bryce is typical of his paragraphs. With scarcely an exception he introduces each paragraph with a topic sentence. He gains in clearness by this method because the topic sentence in that position is like a sign-board telling the reader what to expect. But the advantage in clearness is sometimes offset by the monotonous effect produced by the use of this one device in practically all his paragraphs.. Spencer's paragraphs also usually begin with the topic sentence, but sometimes he finds it more useful at the end, as in this example. Here it happens that the whole paragraph leads to the discussion that follows; it is a transition paragraph. The point that the immorality of trade is due to the indiscriminate worship paid to wealth is elaborated in the pages that follow. Hence the topic sentence at the end is not so much a sign-board for that particular paragraph as a finger-post pointing out the path which the writer is

going to follow. Similarly, in the last paragraph of a composition, a summarizing sentence at the end not only serves as a topic sentence for that concluding paragraph, but also points back along the track that has been traveled in the entire composition. Again in some cases it may be better policy to lead up to your topic sentence than to state it at the outset. For instance, in a scientific discussion the topic sentence might not even be intelligible until you had prepared the way for it by illustration and explanation of the terms.

As a general rule, however, put the topic sentence at or near the beginning of the paragraph. For the student of composition this method is the simplest, and it is specially well adapted to the formal, clear-cut style of official correspondence. At the opening of the paragraph it serves the same purpose as the brief statement of "subject" at the beginning of every official letter; it tells the reader in brief just what the paragraph is about.

The Length of the Paragraph.—A practical question is, how long should a paragraph be? Of course one may make a topic sentence for an entire chapter as well as a topic sentence for a paragraph. The question is, how many subdivisions of the thought shall we use for paragraph units? The answer is not easy. It is a matter of judgment. In general, as we have seen, the paragraph corresponds to the main divisions of thought in the whole composition. But if one division is discussed at much greater length than the others it may well be subdivided into paragraphs, and a point that is merely touched on, to the extent of a sentence or two, had better be related to some larger



division and incorporated into its paragraph than to stand by itself. It is safe to say that paragraphs averaging only three or four lines of handwriting are too short, and those extending over two pages of theme paper are too long. The chief fault of beginners is to make too many paragraphs, to make a paragraph of nearly every sentence. Someone has likened the beginning of a new paragraph to the ringing of a bell which announces to the reader that a new thought is coming. Therefore if the bell is rung at almost every sentence, it will cease to mean anything. The question of length, however, will be likely to take care of itself if the writer makes sure that his paragraphs have unity and structure.

Structure in the Paragraph.—We have discussed unity in the preceding paragraphs and we have also implied the necessity of structure by our definition of the paragraph. According to that definition the sentences of a paragraph are coöperative; they work together in team-play to achieve the goal of the paragraph. As players on a team have definite positions assigned to them, so the sentences must have definite positions in relation to each other in order to produce team-work instead of confusion.

The first thing to consider in structure is the method of development. If the paragraph tells an anecdote, naturally the details will follow in time-order. So also if it explains a process, how to build a skiff, for instance, it will naturally describe that process in order of time. In such cases the method of development comes ready made. In other types of paragraph writing it is not so easy. If the paragraph is descriptive it will need a plan, and in description that plan would

naturally follow a place-order. In describing a scene, for example, you might begin with the general effect of the whole and then starting with the background work toward the foreground or vice versa. When you turn to the kind of writing that is intended to inform or convince, the problem of method is still more difficult because you must make for yourself a method of development with no guide but clear thinking. That method is not so obvious as the order of time or place, but it ought to be just as logical and just as easy to follow. Suppose you begin with the topic sentence. What follows should develop the thought of that sentence by means of particulars, instances, illustrations, comparisons, proof, or possibly by some combination of these; and you must decide what shall come first and what shall come last. If the paragraph is long, you may do well to clinch it at the end with a sentence that summarizes the whole. At all events, you must work out your thought by some clear method of progress.

Study for methods of development the two paragraphs quoted on pages 4 and 5 and also the following:

In fact, the Jews are not now excluded from political power. They possess it, and as long as they are allowed to accumulate large fortunes, they must possess it. The distinction which is sometimes made between civil privileges and political power is a distinction without a difference. Privileges are power. Civil and political are synonymous words, the one derived from the Latin, the other from the Greek. Nor is this mere verbal quibbling. If we look for a moment at the facts of the case, we shall see that the things are inseparable, or rather identical.

MACAULAY, *Civil Disabilities of the Jews*.

Death is at all times solemn, but never so much so as at sea. A man dies on shore; his body remains with his friends, and "the mourners go about the streets"; but when a man falls overboard at sea and is lost, there is a suddenness in the event,

and a difficulty in realizing it, which give to it an air of awful mystery. A man dies on shore; you follow his body to the grave, and a stone marks the spot. You are often prepared for the event. There is always something which helps you to realize it when it happens and to recall it when it has passed. A man is shot down by your side in battle; and the mangled body remains an object and a real evidence. But at sea the man is near you, at your side; you hear his voice; and in an instant he is gone, and nothing but a vacancy shows his loss. Then, too, at sea, to use a homely but expressive phrase, you miss a man so much. A dozen men are shut up together in a little bark upon the wide, wide sea, and for months and months see no forms and hear no voices but their own; and one is suddenly taken from among them, and they miss him at every turn. It is like losing a limb. There are no new faces or new scenes to fill up the gap. There is always an empty berth in the forecabin, and one man wanting when the small night watch is mustered. There is one less to take the wheel, and one less to "lay out" with you upon the yard. You miss his form and the sound of his voice, for habit had made them almost necessary to you, and each of your senses feels the loss.

DANA, *Two Years Before the Mast*.

All the world knows that they [the Americans] are a humorous people. They are as conspicuously the purveyors of humor to the nineteenth century as the French were the purveyors of wit to the eighteenth. Nor is this sense of the ludicrous side of things confined to a few brilliant writers. It is diffused among the whole people; it colors their ordinary life, and gives to their talk that distinctively new flavor which a European palate enjoys. Their capacity for enjoying a joke against themselves was oddly illustrated at the outset of the Civil War, a time of stern excitement, by the merriment which arose over the hasty retreat of the Federal troops at the battle of Bull Run. When William M. Tweed was ruling and robbing New York, and had set on the bench men who were openly prostituting justice, the citizens found the situation so amusing that they almost forgot to be angry. Much of President Lincoln's popularity, and much also of the gift he showed for restoring confidence to the North at the darkest moments of the war,

was due to the humorous way he used to turn things, conveying the impression of not being himself uneasy, even when he was most so.

BRYCE, *American Commonwealth.*

The evidence of lack of water at the present time on the surface of the moon appears to be as complete as that which shows the lack of an atmosphere. In the first place, there are evidently no seas or even lakes of discernible size. There are clearly no rivers. If such features existed, the reflection of the sun from their surfaces would make them exceedingly conspicuous on the dark background of the moon, which for all its apparent brightness is really as dark as the more somber-hued rocks of the earth's surface when lit by the sun. Moreover, even were water present, without an atmosphere there could be no such circulation as takes place on the earth, upward to clouds and thence downward by the rain and streams to the ocean. Clouds cannot exist unless there be an atmosphere in which they can float, and even if there be an air of exceeding tenuity on the moon, it is surely insufficient to support a trace of clouds. Some distinguished astronomers have thought to discern something floating of a cloud-like nature, but these observations, though exceedingly interesting, are not sufficiently verified to have much weight against the body of well-observed facts that shows the moon to be essentially waterless.

SHALER, *The Surface of the Moon.*

The perfect historian is he in whose work the character and spirit of an age is exhibited in miniature. He relates no fact, he attributes no expression to his characters which is not authenticated by sufficient testimony. But, by judicious selection, rejection, and arrangement, he gives to truth those attractions which have been usurped by fiction. In his narrative a due subordination is observed: some transactions are prominent; others retire. But the scale on which he represents them is increased or diminished, not according to the dignity of the persons concerned in them, but according to the degree in which they elucidate the condition of society and the nature of man. He shows us the court, the camp, and the senate. But he shows us also the nation. He considers no

anecdote, no peculiarity of manner, no familiar saying, as too insignificant for his notice which is not too insignificant to illustrate the operation of laws, of religion, and of education, and to mark the progress of the human mind. Men will not merely be described, but will be made intimately known to us. The changes of manners will be indicated, not merely by a few general phrases or a few extracts from statistical documents, but by appropriate images presented in every line.

MACAULAY, *Essay on History*.

All this kind of fact [sudden reform or "conversion"] I fully allow. But the general laws of habit are no wise altered thereby, and the physiological study of mental conditions still remains on the whole the most powerful ally of hortatory ethics. The hell to be endured hereafter, of which theology tells, is no worse than the hell we make for ourselves in this world by habitually fashioning our characters in the wrong way. Could the young but realize how soon they will become mere walking bundles of habits, they would give more heed to their conduct while in the plastic state. We are spinning our own fates, good or evil, and never to be undone. Every smallest stroke of virtue or of vice leaves its never-so-little scar. The drunken Rip Van Winkle, in Jefferson's play, excuses himself for every fresh dereliction by saying, "I won't count this time!" Well, he may not count it, and a kind Heaven may not count it; but it is being counted none the less. Down among his nerve-cells and fibres the molecules are counting it, registering and storing it up to be used against him when the next temptation comes. Nothing we ever do is, in strict scientific literalness, wiped out.

JAMES, *Talks to Teachers on Psychology*.

Coherence in the Paragraph.—The first step in paragraph structure is, as we have seen, a plan of development. The order of sentences will naturally depend on this plan. The second step is binding the sentences so closely together that their relationship to each other is perfectly clear. On a previous page the sentences of a paragraph were compared to the beams

used in the building of a ship, and the paragraph to the assembled frame that forms the rib of the hull. To continue the figure, we may say that as the separate pieces are held together by bolts to form the frame, so the separate sentences in a paragraph are held together by connectives. Coherence means "sticking together," but logical coherence in writing is better expressed by the illustration of parts of a structure placed in the right order and then riveted together.

Sometimes, of course, the sequence of thought is so clear that a formal connective is not needed. A pronoun, or the repetition of a word or phrase, serves to make the connection. But the chief business of showing how one sentence is related in thought to the one that precedes it and the one that follows it falls chiefly on the words and phrases that are called "connectives." These are the "bolts" that hold together parts of paragraphs and parts of sentences as well. Inexperienced writers try to make "and," "but," and "so" do all the work of coherence, with the result that their style is both childish and obscure. Since clearness is the first aim in writing, the student should gain full command of the connectives. In fact, they might be called the alphabet of clear writing.

The following are some of the most useful connectives, expressing, as each one does, a definite relation of ideas: However, nevertheless, notwithstanding, moreover, further, at first, later, finally, again, also, too, indeed, in fact, in short, it is true, therefore, hence, consequently, accordingly, obviously, at any rate, at least, for example, for instance, not but, not only but also, on the one hand on the other hand.

Point out the connectives in the following paragraphs:

Charles, however, had one advantage, which, if he had used it well, would have more than compensated for the want of stores and money, and which, notwithstanding his mismanagement, gave him, during some months, a superiority in the war. His troops at first fought much better than those of the Parliament. Both armies, it is true, were almost entirely composed of men who had never seen a field of battle. Nevertheless, the difference was great. The parliamentary ranks were filled with hirelings whom want and idleness had induced to enlist. Hampden's regiment was regarded as one of the best; and even Hampden's regiment was described by Cromwell as a mere rabble of tapsters and serving-men out of place. The royal army, on the other hand, consisted in great part of gentlemen, high spirited, ardent, accustomed to consider dishonor as more terrible than death, accustomed to fencing, to the use of firearms, to bold riding, and to manly and perilous sport, which has been well called the image of war. Such gentlemen, mounted on their favorite horses, and commanding little bands composed of their younger brothers, grooms, gamekeepers, and huntsmen, were, from the very first day on which they took the field, qualified to play their part with credit in a skirmish. The steadiness, the prompt obedience, the mechanical precision of movement, which are characteristic of the regular soldier, these gallant volunteers never attained. But they were at first opposed to enemies as undisciplined as themselves, and far less active, athletic, and daring. For a time, therefore, the Cavaliers were successful in almost every encounter.

MACAULAY, *History of England*.

A cultivated man should express himself by tongue or pen with some accuracy and elegance; therefore linguistic training has had great importance in the idea of cultivation. The conditions of the educated world have, however, changed so profoundly since the revival of learning in Italy that our inherited ideas concerning training in language and literature have required large modifications. In the year 1400 it might have been said with truth that there was but one language of

scholars, the Latin, and but two great literatures, the Hebrew and the Greek. Since that time, however, other great literatures have arisen, the Italian, Spanish, French, German, and above all the English, which has become incomparably the most extensive and various and the noblest of literatures. Under these circumstances it is impossible to maintain that a knowledge of any particular literature is indispensable to culture. Yet we cannot but feel that the cultivated man ought to possess a considerable acquaintance with the literature of some great language, and the power to use the native language in a pure and interesting way. Thus, we are not sure that Robert Burns could be properly described as a cultivated man, moving poet though he was. We do not think of Abraham Lincoln as a cultivated man, master of English speech and writing though he was. These men do not correspond to the type represented by the word "cultivated," but belong in the class of geniuses. When we ask ourselves why a knowledge of literature seems indispensable to the ordinary idea of cultivation, we find no answer except this, that in literature are portrayed all human passions, desires, and aspirations, and that acquaintance with these human feelings, and with the means of portraying them, seems to us essential to culture. These human qualities and powers are also the commonest ground of interesting human intercourse, and therefore literary knowledge exalts the quality and enhances the enjoyment of human intercourse. It is in conversation that cultivation tells as much as anywhere, and this rapid exchange of thoughts is by far the commonest manifestation of its power. Combine the knowledge of literature with knowledge of the "stream of the world," and you have united two large sources of the influence of the cultivated person. The linguistic and literary element in cultivation therefore abides, but has become vastly broader than formerly; so broad, indeed, that selection among its various fields is forced upon every educated youth.

ELIOT, *The New Definition of the Cultivated Man.*

Emphasis in a Paragraph.—So far, in considering unity and structure, we have been concerned with the first business of writing, clearness. But there is an-

other important consideration; emphasis. Emphasis means fastening the reader's attention on what is most important at the expense of what is less important. There are two ways of working for emphasis, by proportion and by position. Proportion means giving space and detail to what you consider most important, and position means giving the important idea the commanding place. In a paragraph the two most important positions are the beginning and the end. Of the two the end is the more important; hence you should leave for the last sentence the conclusion of the paragraph, or the striking illustration, or whatever it is that is best fitted to make the idea of the paragraph stick.

Conclusion.—The discussion in this chapter may seem to make the writing of a paragraph an extremely artificial and elaborate process. As a matter of fact, you may say, writers just go ahead and reel off their paragraphs. They do not stop to plot out each one with its topic sentence, its connectives, its emphasis, and all the rest. But the fluency of the practiced writer does not mean an utter lack of plan. It is like the fluency of the musician, which comes from long practice with five-finger exercises. The paragraphs quoted in this chapter are evidence enough that the practiced writer makes of his paragraph a structure, not a slap-dash series of sentences. In learning skating, swimming, or dancing, the beginner must analyze the movements and go through them deliberately and repeatedly before he can expect to acquire the knack. Similarly, analysis and practice are necessary to a mastery of the art of writing the paragraph. And the principles of paragraph-writing are all the more important because the paragraph is, as we have seen,

a composition in miniature. A mastery of the principles of the paragraph, therefore, means a mastery of the principles of all composition.

Finally, the planning of a paragraph is the best help to clear, orderly thinking. And this first chapter is a good place to emphasize the fact that in all writing, whether of sentences, paragraphs, or whole compositions, clear writing depends on clear thinking.

EXERCISE

1. Write out and bring to class a topic sentence for each of the paragraphs quoted in this chapter. Be prepared to develop the thought of each in a paragraph of your own.

2. Write a paragraph of about two pages on one of the following topics. Begin with the topic sentence:

a. The chief difference between the Naval Academy and a college.

b. The work I enjoyed most during the summer term.

c. My first day at the Naval Academy.

d. The most distinctive feature of my home town.

e. The proper care of a rifle.

3. Write a paragraph of about two pages on one of the following topics, with or without a topic sentence:

a. Cutter drill under oars.

b. How it feels to be a Plebe.

c. The Chapel.

d. An incident of the summer term.

e. An interesting character.

4. Write a similar paragraph on one of the following topics:

a. What my home town has done for the Red Cross or the Liberty Loans.

b. A character sketch of John Paul Jones or some other naval hero.

c. The gyro-compass.

d. Anti-submarine devices.

e. The chief industry of my state.

f. Recent aeroplane development.

CHAPTER II

THE SENTENCE: GRAMMAR

As the paragraph is the unit of the whole composition, the sentence is the unit of the paragraph. And the qualities of unity, clearness, and emphasis that are to be aimed at in constructing paragraphs must also be sought in constructing sentences. But a sentence must, first of all, be grammatically correct. Popular judgment of a man's education depends chiefly on his grammar, and no matter how fine an engineer or tactician he may be, if he speaks and writes ungrammatically he is classed as an uneducated man. The ideal way of mastering the grammar of a language is to be brought up to the sound of it so that correct use becomes instinctive; but slovenly habits of speech are so common and so contagious that practically everyone needs to keep a sharp eye on his verbs, adverbs, and pronouns. In this chapter we shall have space for only the commonest of these grammatical mistakes.

First, however, we should note the fact that English grammar is more a matter of word position than inflectional endings. In fact, English has lost so many of its old noun and verb endings that it has even been called the "grammarless" language. It has lost nearly all of those distinctions of genders and declensions and conjugations that perplex the beginner in French or German. In place of these endings English has a simple word order—subject, predicate, and object. This fact makes the position of a word most important

in English, whereas in Latin, for example, it is the ending of the word, not its position, that tells its grammatical business in the sentence. For instance, in Latin one may write, *Brutus necavit Cæsarem*, or *Brutus Cæsarem necavit*, or *Cæsarem Brutus necavit*; in any case the meaning will be, "Brutus killed Cæsar." But in English "Brutus killed Cæsar" means one thing, "Cæsar killed Brutus" means another, and "Brutus Cæsar killed" is at best clumsy and ambiguous.

Although word order is the foundation of English grammar, it is not everything. English has kept only a few of its ancient inflectional endings, but as these happen to be the ones that are needed for every-day use, they are constantly giving trouble.

Pronouns.—There are only seven words in the English language that have different forms for the nominative and objective cases, but since these are the personal pronouns, which are in use all the time, they are numerous enough to make many stumbling blocks in grammar.

Two of the commonest errors in case are illustrated by the following: "Who were you talking to?" and "It is him." In the first it is clear that the relative pronoun "who" is governed by the preposition "to." Since a noun or pronoun governed by a preposition should be in the objective case, the question should read, "*Whom* were you talking to?" In the second sentence it is clear that the pronoun "him" has no excuse for being in the objective case; on the contrary, it should be in the same case as the subject of the verb "is." Therefore, the sentence should read, "It is *he*." Both these mistakes are undoubtedly due to our feeling

for word order in English.* We are so accustomed to the order, subject, predicate, object, that we expect a word at the beginning to be in the nominative case and a word at the end to be in the objective case. Indeed the phrase "It is me" has become so common that some grammarians, notably the English, go so far as to admit it to good use in speech. But it is certainly not in good use for formal writing.

Another mistake is due to the feeling that any pronoun that follows a preposition must be in the objective case. But in some sentences the object of the preposition is not the pronoun, but the whole clause of which the pronoun is the subject. In the sentence, "They offered a prize to whoever passed with the highest average," "whoever" is not the object of the preposition "to," but the subject of the verb "passed," and therefore in the nominative case. The object of the preposition is the clause "whoever passed with the highest average."

A similar mistake is due to the nearness of the relative pronoun to a transitive verb. In the sentence, "The man who we expected would be present failed to come," the temptation is to write "whom" because it seems to be the object of the verb "expected." As in the case in the previous paragraph, however, "who" proves to be the subject of the verb in the clause and the whole clause is the object of the verb "expected." Of course, if the relative pronoun is the subject of an infinitive, it must be in the objective case, because every subject of an infinitive is in the

* See *Studies in English Syntax*, by C. Alphonso Smith, chapter III, "The Position of Words in English Syntax."

objective case. The sentence, then, would read, "The man whom we expected to be present failed to come." It is important to look sharply to the business of every pronoun—especially a relative pronoun—to make sure that you are giving it the proper case.

The commonest blunder in regard to number has to do with words like "everybody" and "anybody." "Everybody is trying to do their bit," and "Anybody can do what they like," are familiar sayings. The reason for using the plural "their" and "they" is the fact that "everybody" and "anybody" suggest a vague number of people instead of an individual. And yet no one would think of saying everybody or anybody *are* doing anything. If the pronoun is singular for the verb, of course it must be singular for every word of reference. We should say, therefore, "Everybody is trying to do *his* bit," and "Anybody can say what *he* likes."

Exercise.—The sentences in the following exercise illustrate not only the points discussed above, but others that are related to them. The exercise is designed to serve as a general review of the grammatical use of pronouns. Fill in the blanks with the proper pronouns, as indicated, and in each case give the reason for your choice.

I or Me

1. Between you and this looks serious.
2. Shall he come with Robert and?
3. There is no one present but you and
4. Would you try for it if you were?
5. He reported the whole section, among the rest.
6. Everybody was there except you and
7. The Commandant sent word for my roommate and to report to the office.
8. Frank is much taller than

He or Him

1. If anybody gets promoted it will not be
2. It was not but his brother whom you saw.
3. She is as good a mathematician as

Who, Whom; Whoever, Whomever

1. are you going to write to?
2. are you supposed to represent?
3. are you supposed to be?
4. did you say is your roommate?
5. He is a man I know is loyal.
6. He is a man I know to be loyal.
7. Can't you remember you gave that statement to?
8. Promotion is awarded to makes good in the Service.
9. I don't care; tell you please.
10. I never knew it was.

(Singular or Plural)

1. I wish everybody would mind own business.
2. Everyone has a right to think what please(s).
3. Many a brave man met death in Flanders.
4. If anybody had called me up at that hour I would not have answered
5. Every sort of man has good points.
6. Either one will lend you ink bottle.
7. Nobody is willing to do more than share.
8. Man after man stepped forward and offered services.
9. A battleship, accompanied by a flotilla of destroyers, just steamed into port.
10. When the team got fighting spirit up, will win easily.

Verbs; Tense.—As in the case of pronouns, there are still enough changes in the inflection of verbs in English to make trouble. These are responsible for the crudest and commonest mistakes in the tenses of verbs. The use of “come” for “came,” “run” for “ran,”

"says" for "said," and the like is often heard, but it always betrays the speaker's breeding and education. This slovenly use of the present tense for the past has no excuse and needs no discussion.

Other questions of tense are not so simple, and the following points should be noted carefully:

* 1. Principal verbs referring to the same time should be in the same tense.

2. The *perfect indicative* represents something as now completed—as begun in the past but continuing till the present, at least in its consequences: as, "I *have lost* my book" (so that now I do not have it); "This house *has stood* for ninety years" (it is still standing); "Bishop Brooks *has died*, but he *has left* us his example" (he is not now among us, but we have his example).

3. The tense of the verb in a dependent clause varies with the tense of the principal verb: as,

I *know* he *will* come.

I *knew* he *would* come.

I *have taken* the first train, that I *may* arrive early.

I *had taken* the first train, that I *might* arrive early.

Tom *will be* happy if he *sees* his father.

Tom *would be* happy if he *saw* his father.

Tom *would have been* happy if he *had seen* his father.

Present facts and unchangeable truths, however, should be expressed in the present tense, regardless of the tense of the principal verb: as, "What did you say his name *is*?"

4. The *perfect infinitive* is properly used to denote action which is completed at the time denoted by the principal verb: as, "I am glad to *have seen* Niagara Falls"; "He felt sorry to *have hurt* your feelings."

EXCEPTION.—*Ought*, *must*, *need*, and *should* (in the sense of "ought") have no distinctive form to denote past time; with these verbs present time is denoted by putting the complementary infinitive in the present tense, past time is denoted by

* Quoted in large part from Buehler, *Practical Exercises in English*, pp. 78ff.

putting the complementary infinitive in the perfect tense: as, "You ought *to go*," "You ought *to have gone*"; "He should *be careful*," "He should *have been careful*." A similar change from the present to the perfect infinitive is found after *could* and *might* in some of their uses: as, "I could *go*," "I could *have gone*"; "You might *answer*," "You might *have answered*."

EXERCISE

Distinguish in meaning between the following:

1. The house stood (has stood) twenty years.
2. The messenger came (has come).
3. He should stay (have stayed).
4. It rained (has rained) for two weeks.
5. He was believed to live (to have lived) a happy life.
6. He ought to go (to have gone).
7. He deposited (has deposited) the money in bank.
8. I am sure I could go (have gone) alone.
9. Yesterday at three o'clock I completed (had completed) my work.
10. He must be (have been) weary.
11. He appeared to be (have been) crying.
12. He need not go. He need not have gone.
13. The horse jumped (had jumped) into the field, and began (had begun) to eat the corn.
14. Achilles is said to be (have been) buried at the foot of this hill.

Which of the italicized forms is right?

1. Where did you say Pike's Peak *is* (*was*)?
2. I intended *to do* (*to have done*) it yesterday.
3. No one would say that winter *is* (*was*) preferable to spring.
4. I meant *to write* (*to have written*) yesterday.
5. He was reported *to rescue* (*to have rescued*) the drowning man.
6. It would have been unkind *to refuse* (*to have refused*) *to help* (*to have helped*) him.
7. Is he very sick? I should say he *is* (*was*).
8. It would have been better *to wait* (*to have waited*).
9. The furniture was *to have been* (*to be*) sold at auction.

10. I am writing to him so that he *may* (*might*) be ready for us.

11. I have written him so that he *may* (*might*) be ready for us.

12. I wrote to him so that he *may* (*might*) be ready for us.

Shall and Will.—The Scotch and the Americans are famous for their disregard of the proper use of the auxiliary *shall*. Undoubtedly *shall* is losing ground everywhere in the English-speaking world, but good use is still on its side, and the educated man ought to know how to employ it properly. Now *shall* expresses the idea of something taking place in the future, and *will* expresses the idea of determination or desire about something in the future. But since *shall* carries with it an idea of compulsion or inevitableness, *will* is often substituted for the sake of courtesy or modesty. We say, "You *will* catch cold," because "You *shall* catch cold" sounds too much like a disagreeable future fact that cannot be avoided by the person spoken to. So, also, we say, "It *will* rain this afternoon," because "It *shall* rain" would sound as if we claimed control of the weather or, at least, the gift of prophecy. In short, the use of *will* for *shall* in the second and third persons of the verb is due to considerations of courtesy or modesty. But *will* is used so often on this account to express a simple future idea that most people make the mistake of using it for the first person also, and we hear such phrases as "I'm afraid I *will* be sick."

The same blunder is found in the past tenses, as, "I was afraid I *would* be sick." Perhaps one reason for the dropping of *should* in favor of *would* is the fact that *should* has sometimes the special meaning of "ought," as in "You should try to do better," and

sometimes stands for the subjunctive, as in "If it should turn out right." At any rate, the vast majority of people misuse in speech and writing the auxiliaries *will* and *would*, when the idea to be expressed is simply one of future being or action for the first person, "I" or "we." For the correct use of *will* and *shall* master the following principles:

1. To express a simple future idea in the first person, use *shall* (or *should*); e. g., "I shall be twenty-one next birthday."

2. To express determination or command on the part of the *speaker*, use *shall* or *should* in the second and third persons; e. g., "You shall repent of this." "They shall not pass!" Note: For the sake of courtesy, military commands are given with the use of *will* instead of *shall*; as, "You will report at once to the commanding officer."

3. In questions, for the first person singular use only *shall*; e. g., "Shall I be of assistance if I come?" One never needs to ask what he himself wills to do. For the second and third persons use the auxiliary expected in the answer; e. g., "Will he give his consent?" (Answer, "He will.") "Shall he be dismissed?" (Answer, "He shall," spoken by one in authority.) "Will you help me?" (Answer, "I will.") "Shall you be of age this year?" (Answer, "I shall.")

4. For indirect discourse use the auxiliary that is correct for direct discourse; e. g., "He says he shall drown without a life-belt"; ("I shall drown"). "She is afraid her brother will fail"; ("My brother will fail"). In the past tense, the corresponding forms would be, of course, *should* for *shall* and *would* for

will; e. g., "He said he should drown," and "She was afraid her brother would fail."

Exercise.—Fill in the blanks with the proper auxiliary. Give the reason for your choice:

Will or Shall

1. I be greatly obliged if you help me.
2. Do you think we have to drill to-morrow?
3. He says he be subject to the draft this spring.
4. You have a hard time at first.
5. I wonder when we get supper to-night.
6. you be at leisure this afternoon?
7. I am afraid I be reported for that.
8. there be a chance for me?
9. This year we be forced to economize on food.
10. I be in the way if I come?

Would or Should

1. I like to find out where he went.
2. If you consent this time I be very grateful.
3. He swore that it not happen again.
4. He declared that he not go, but I think he if you be willing to go with him.
5. We be foolish if we did not do our best.
6. I found out that I be rejected on account of my eyes.
7. The judges agreed that the match be played over again.
8. He was afraid that he fail in his examination.
9. you do that if you were I?
10. you feel under any obligation to a man like that?

The Subjunctive.—Like the use of "shall" the use of the subjunctive is losing ground. While it is common in poetry and formal writing, in ordinary prose it is restricted to express three ideas: (1) A supposition that is unlikely or doubtful; (2) a supposition that is untrue; (3) a wish.

It might be said, in general, that the subjunctive mood expresses suppositions that are either doubtful or untrue. A supposition that is neither unlikely nor untrue is expressed in the indicative mood.

1. Doubtful Condition: "If this *be* treason, make the most of it." In the present tense this subjunctive is rare to-day in all except formal writing. It is used in official letters—"If this request *be* granted"—to imply that the request is so dependent on the authority addressed as to be a matter of doubtful fulfilment. In ordinary writing it would be, "If this request is granted." In the past tense this use of the subjunctive is still common. "If he *were* to go, after all, you would regret what you said."

2. Untrue Condition: "If I *were* you." This is the commonest use of the subjunctive in modern English.

3. Wish: "God *bless* you!" (future time). "I wish I *knew* where that book is" (present time, unfulfilled). "I wish you *had done* better" (past time, contrary to fact).

In the formal expression of votes and resolutions the subjunctive is used; as, "Resolved that the Secretary *forward* these findings to the executive committee." This use of the subjunctive may be classed with the expression of a wish.

Exercise.—Supply the proper verb in either the subjunctive or the indicative mood, giving the reasons for your choice.

1. If I to do as you say, I should be ruined.
2. I wish my father here.
3. He acted as if he crazy.
4. If the man there evidently no one noticed him.
5. I wish I going to be with you.
6. Even if he as clever as you think, he could not do this.

7. He acts as if it possible to fool everybody.
8. If he his duty faithfully he has nothing to be afraid of.
9. If this pay day I must draw my check.
10. Long the king!
11. If Lincoln President still, he would have a host of critics.
12. If the clock set back an hour in the spring, it will save a great deal.

Adjective or Adverb.—Some adverbs have exactly the same form as the corresponding adjectives (*e. g.*, hard, straight, high, first, fast), and these are to blame, perhaps, for the tendency of uneducated people to make all the adjectives do the work of the corresponding adverbs. The question whether to use an adjective or an adverb may be settled by finding out what the qualifying word modifies. If it modifies the subject of the verb it must be an adjective, if it modifies the verb itself it must be an adverb.

As a corollary of the foregoing principle, it may be added that if any form of the verb "to be" or "to seem" may be substituted for the verb, use the adjective instead of the adverb; *e. g.*, "An old slipper feels comfortable"—(it is, or seems, comfortable).

Exercise.—Explain which of the italicized forms is right.

1. He feels *bad* (*badly* *) about that.
2. Go *slow* (*slowly*).*
3. That looks *good* (*well*) to me.
4. He passed the examination *easy* (*easily*).
5. It tastes *different* (*differently*) from that other piece.
6. The flowers smelt *sweet* (*sweetly*).
7. The floor feels *smooth* (*smoothly*).
8. He thrashed that big fellow *good* (*well*).
9. The water looked *cold* (*coldly*).
10. He acted *strange* (*strangely*).

* Look up these words in the dictionary.

CHAPTER III

THE SENTENCE: ORGANIZATION

The first thing to consider about a sentence is, as we have seen, whether it is grammatically correct. The next is whether the thought of the sentence is expressed in the best way. In the preceding chapter we had to do with questions of right and wrong; in this we deal with questions of better and worse. It is easier to learn the difference between right and wrong forms than to master the principles of good writing, but there are a few practical points that go a long way toward the writing of a good sentence. Those points are the business of this chapter.

In the discussion of the paragraph (Chapter I) three qualities of writing were emphasized—unity, clearness, and emphasis. These are the qualities to be aimed at in all writing, whether of the paragraph, the sentence, or the whole composition. We must realize, of course, that they are not separate and distinct in good writing, any more than the good qualities in a man's character. A sentence without unity would be liable to lack clearness and emphasis, and an emphatic sentence would probably have both clearness and unity. These qualities are bound to be closely related. We have already discussed what they mean in relation to the paragraph; let us see now what they mean in the organization of the sentence.

UNITY

The first and fundamental quality is unity, because we cannot go ahead in writing or speaking without

having learned to say one thing at a time. A sentence is a unit when it expresses one thought or a cluster of closely related thoughts. For example, "The rifle stood in the rack" is a single thought, and therefore the sentence is a unit. "The rifle that belonged to me stood in the rack that was nearest to the east corner of the Armory" is a complicated sentence involving several thoughts. It tells not only where the rifle stood, but whom it belonged to and where its rack was located. Since these ideas are closely related, however, the longer sentence is a unit as well as the shorter.

Coördination.—Compound Sentences: There is little difficulty over unity in simple sentences; the trouble comes in writing compound and complex sentences. The test for unity in both kinds is to see whether the various ideas represented by the clauses and phrases are really closely related. For example, "The ship was old, and there was a smell of bilge water below decks." This is a compound sentence with two coördinate ideas; that is, ideas of equal value in the sentence. It is a unit because the ideas are in the same line of thought, and the whole could be condensed into a simple sentence, "The ship was old and smelly." Any compound sentence that can be condensed into a simple one is a unit. If, however, the sentence ran, "The ship was old, and there was a red meal pennant flying," it would not be a unit because there is no connection in thought between the two ideas.

There are other relations between parts of compound sentences than that expressed by "and." In fact, much bad sentence-writing is due to the careless use of "and" when the relation of ideas should be

expressed by some other coördinate conjunction. The following are the most important:

1. (Contrast) I tried *but* I didn't succeed.
2. (Alternation) *Either* the data are wrong *or* your reasoning is wrong.
3. (Consequence) Ability to handle men is the main thing; *therefore* work for it.
4. (Reason) They will not flinch, *for* they come of fighting stock.

Sometimes the relation of thought is so close that no conjunction at all is needed; for example, "In the navy a man can't run from responsibility; he must face it out." In sentences like this the idea of the first clause is practically repeated in the second.

In writing a compound sentence be sure, first, that it ought to be compound, rather than complex or divided into simple sentences. Are the two statements connected by a coördinate conjunction really connected in thought? Are they of equal value? Is the conjunction the right one to express the relation in thought?

Subordination.—Complex Sentences: One great stumbling block of beginners is the habit of making long, rambling compound sentences. The child and the uneducated man make only simple and compound sentences, especially the latter, in which one clause follows another by means of "and," "but," and "so" to an indefinite length. In contrast with the compound sentence, the complex sentence shows that one of the ideas is more important than the rest. This chief idea is expressed in the main clause, and the other ideas which are subordinate to it are expressed in subordinate clauses. Since the complex sentence shows

discrimination and plan, it might be called the "scientific" sentence. In fact, this is the most important type of sentence to practice on. It requires thinking, first, to determine what is the main idea, and, secondly, to make clear the precise relation that each subordinate clause bears to that main idea.

For this second purpose we need the mastery of connectives discussed in the first chapter. As a substitute for the colloquial "so"—which literally means "in this manner"—learn to use the causal connectives "as," "because," "for," and "since."

As is the loosest causal connective, and though it serves a useful purpose, it is often used when one of the others would do better. *Because* distributes the emphasis evenly between cause and effect. *For* emphasizes the reason, and *since* emphasizes the result. Examples: "As things were running smoothly, he took a holiday." "I trust him because he has never failed me in the past." "Enlist at once, for the country needs you." "Since you feel so deeply about it, I will give up the idea."

Exercise.—Criticize the following sentences for unity; divide or recast them and change the connectives where they do not express the right relation of thought:

1. It began to rain, and we went home.
2. The man whom you saw there was my uncle, who is eighty years old and a veteran of the Civil War.
3. While he is not heavy, he is strong and quick.
4. The drill was long, hence we were very tired at the end.
5. I was the slowest, so I got there last.
6. It will be well first to define Stoicism, and it was made up of a school of heroes.
7. I spent a week in New York. Which was very pleasant.
8. A wheel broke on a steep hill, and we had to get out and leave the car by the road and walk a mile to the nearest car line.

9. I was walking through the yard when I met a stranger, and he asked me the way to the Auditorium to see the flags.

10. Richard is tall and strong, and his brother is just the opposite.

11. Though he likes lacrosse, he is fond of tennis, too.

12. I never had seen Annapolis before, being a native of Wisconsin, where my parents now live, and I had never traveled out of the State till I came here.

13. I went away, as I didn't like the crowd.

14. By this time the enemy and the Foote were within 1400 yards, and the submarine launched a torpedo which made a surface run and missed by 25 yards.

15. We were steaming at about ten knots when a wake was sighted on our port bow.

16. Hamlet, a dutiful son and striving to set many wrongs right, acted according to the promptings of his own character, and this explains his attitude.

CLEARNESS

Unity is, as we have seen, fundamental; but the first aim of all writing and speaking is clearness, because the business of language is to communicate ideas. For the naval officer, especially, clearness should be the supreme aim in his writing: not approximate clearness, but 100 per cent clearness. It would seem the easiest thing in the world to use the words of one's mother tongue to make an idea plain, and yet in practice we find it is not always easy. For instance, during the Somme campaign in 1916, a British force was cut to pieces because an order written by a British staff officer was so clumsily worded that it was interpreted to mean something fatally different from what was intended.

The chief cause of muddy writing is muddy thinking. The man who does not think clearly will never write clearly. But there are careless and slovenly

habits of writing that often betray even a clear head into saying a thing obscurely. The following points should prove helpful as safeguards against sins of this sort:

Connectives.—Use the connective that exactly expresses your meaning. In the discussion of unity we saw how important it is to use the conjunctions accurately in order to pull the parts of a sentence together as a unit. That careful use of connectives is in itself one of the most important steps toward clearness. Every sentence in the last exercise that was improved for unity by a change of connective was improved also for clearness.

Order.—I. Words: In the English language, as we have seen, the order of words is of the greatest importance in determining the meaning of a sentence. Hence we must look sharply to the position of the word to make sure that it stands where it belongs. The commonest mistakes in word order are due to the misplacing of such adverbs as “only,” “nearly,” “hardly,” “almost,” “ever,” “scarcely.” For example, write, “I saw him only once,” instead of “I only saw him once.” In the last sentence, “only” may be taken to modify either “I” or “saw,” whereas the sense demands that it modify “once.”

2. Phrases: A modifying phrase also may cause confusion by being out of order. For example, “The townsfolk waited to welcome the troops with smiling faces” suggests that the troops had smiling faces, although this was evidently not the meaning intended.

3. Clauses: A modifying clause also may be in the wrong place. For example, “He is that son of a rear admiral who was dismissed from the Academy last

spring." In this sentence clearness is lost because the clause beginning with, "who" seems to refer to "rear admiral," which immediately precedes it.

For all these modifying words, phrases, or clauses, a practical rule is, *place the modifier next to the word it modifies.*

Reference Words.—In the last example the reference word "who" became ambiguous because it stood next to the wrong word. Trouble is made also by a careless use of the reference pronouns themselves. They may refer to either one of two antecedents, or they may have no antecedent at all. Examples: "Father told him that the work was not done right, and he got so angry with him that he told him that he never wanted to see him again." In this sentence whom does "he" refer to? "The American invasion of Europe in the summer used to be enormous, and they brought millions of dollars." What is the antecedent of "they"? Watch the words of reference, therefore, to make sure that their antecedents are clear.

The Dangling Participle.—Sometimes confusion is caused by a participle that has nothing to modify in the sentence. Since it hangs loose in syntax it is called the "dangling" participle. This is one of the commonest mistakes, and even where it is not obscure it is always clumsy. Example: "Judging from orders, regulations, and reports, the dangling participle is the favorite mistake of naval officers." In this sentence "judging" is a dangling participle because it modifies nothing in the sentence. In this case there is no question about the meaning, but in other cases the dangling participle may make real confusion of thought. For

example, "Going ahead, the transport was seen, crowded with troops." In this sentence the participle may easily hitch itself to the transport, whereas what the writer meant was, "Going ahead, I saw the transport," etc. Avoid the dangling participle, because nothing is gained by it and it makes for awkwardness and obscurity.

The "nominative absolute" construction, which is something like the dangling participle, should be mentioned chiefly as something to avoid. Example: "These errors having been corrected, the auditor left for the other bank." Here "errors" is called a nominative absolute "because it has no grammatical connection with the rest of the sentence. This is a clumsy construction. In the abbreviated form, however, like "This done, we went home," it is not objectionable.

Parallelism.—A practical point to remember in the building of sentences is that *ideas parallel in thought should be parallel in form*. This device serves the same purpose as a uniform. By its dress, so to speak, an idea shows its relation to other ideas in the sentence. That is, if one idea is expressed by a relative clause, the corresponding idea should be put in a relative clause; if one is expressed by an adjective, the other should be an adjective. It might be added, by the way, that this device not only aids clearness, but pulls the sentence together into a shipshape unit. As a corollary of this rule, note that *coördinate conjunctions should connect similar sentence elements*. Connect nouns with nouns, adjectives with adjectives, infinitive phrases with infinitive phrases, clauses with clauses, etc. Example: "The ghost had told him not to harm his mother, but that he should make her re-

pent." Here an infinitive phrase is connected by "and" with a noun clause. But since both elements are parts of the ghost's message, they are parallel in thought, and should therefore be parallel in form. The change of construction is confusing. A better form would be, "The ghost had warned him not to harm his mother, but to make her repent."

Correlative conjunctions, especially, need careful watching to see that they connect similar sentence elements. Example: "He was not only always insubordinate as a midshipman, but also as a junior officer." Here the meaning is not clear because the correlatives do not connect similar sentence elements. Note the improvement in clearness when the sentence reads, "He was always insubordinate, not only as a midshipman, but also as a junior officer."

Exercise.—Revise the following sentences on the basis of all the points discussed under the head of clearness in sentence structure:

1. For a while I was very hopeful of getting duty on a destroyer, but it soon faded into disappointment.
2. I never want to play football again.
3. He only got to the burning house after it was too late to save it.
4. By increasing the tonnage of the submarine its mechanical difficulties are aggravated.
5. He received a telegram that his father was dying, just as he was leaving the field.
6. It is only his duty to deal with the purely business side of the administration.
7. He gave me not only the notebook, but also lent me his pencil.
8. Such criticism will be tolerated by the administration only so long as it is silly and futile.
9. These things having been attended to, we began work on the real business of the day.

10. Elliott was signaled to come up with full speed, but to no avail.

11. He thus crushed the rear before the center could offer assistance and was free to destroy the center.

12. While trying to gain this position our forward guns kept up a steady fire.

13. There are certain things we learn to do and also others not to do from experience and observation.

14. In the beliefs of the Stoics that virtue was the basis of all, they carried it too far.

15. Thus manhood is brought to Markheim by an unknown person who comes to the house while he is looking for the money.

16. This kind of thing prevailed in Rome for a while because they were more warlike than the Greeks.

17. Not only does he work slowly, but carelessly also.

18. The people of Wisconsin have no desire to deprive the railroads of aught that belongs to them, and if any of them have, their wishes cannot be granted by this Commission.

Punctuation.—One important aid to clearness in the sentence is the mechanical device of punctuation. This consists of a set of symbols which, by common agreement, represent in writing what in speaking is done by pauses and changes of inflection. The difference that punctuation makes in the meaning of a sentence is illustrated by the following examples: *

“The man says my informant lies.

The man, says my informant, lies.

While we were mounting the horse, an unruly animal balked.

While we were mounting, the horse, an unruly animal, balked.”

Indeed, long litigations have taken place over the question of a comma or a semicolon in the printing of a law, because of the difference in meaning involved.

* Young, *Freshman English*, p. 105.

1. The Period: The period marks (a) the end of a declarative sentence, and (b) an abbreviation, as Md., U. S. A., e. g.

2. The Semicolon: The semicolon marks the larger divisions of a sentence, indicating a pause weaker than that of a period, but stronger than that of a comma. It is used (a) to separate clauses that contain commas. Example: "The efficiency of officers, their ability to get results with the minimum of friction, is an excellent result of their training; but the same training tends sometimes to produce a narrow, ingrowing habit of mind."

It is also used (b) to separate coördinate clauses that have no conjunction. Example: "He struggled for years to make his message understood; he struggled in vain."

It is also used (c) to introduce an example, before "as," "for example," "for instance," at the end of a clause. Example: "I have been on board some of our most famous ships; for example, the Constitution, the Hartford, etc."

3. The Comma: The comma, in general, marks the weaker pauses in the sentence. The comma has many uses; the following are the most important:

(a) It is used to separate words, phrases, or clauses of a series not connected by conjunctions, as in this sentence.

(b) It is used in complex sentences to separate the dependent clause from the main clause when the dependent clause stands first. A long introductory phrase, also, is separated from the rest of the sentence by a comma. Examples: "When he had finished his prepa-

rations, he explained his plan." "To understand the dangers involved, one must read his story."

(c) It is used to separate clauses of a compound sentence, unless the compound elements are short and closely related. Examples: "He surrendered at the first demand, for he saw that resistance was useless." "He turned and ran."

(d) It is used for parenthetical expressions, including words and phrases in apposition. Examples: "This scheme, you know, has never worked in the past." "Lincoln, 'our first American,' came from the soil."

(e) It is used before a quotation not longer than one sentence. Example: "He cried, 'Give me liberty or give me death!'"

(f) It is used in direct address. Example: "Fellow classmates, I move that we make the election unanimous."

(g) It is used to indicate the omission of a word that is necessary to the construction. Example: "This idea is practical; the other, only a pretty dream."

(h) It is used to separate non-restrictive clauses and phrases from the word they modify. A non-restrictive word element is one that does not limit the thing modified; it adds some information about it. A restrictive element limits the word modified. Examples: (Restrictive) "He is the man whom you want." (Non-restrictive) "General Foch, who is now the Allied Generalissimo, served in the Franco-Prussian War."

4. The Colon: The colon is used: (a) to introduce a list of items, as in this sentence; (b) to introduce a long quotation; (c) at the beginning of a business letter, as "Dear Sir:".

5. The Apostrophe: The apostrophe is used (a) to indicate the possessive of nouns. Example: "The man's hat." Note: For proper nouns ending in *s* the better practice is to add *'s*; as in "Jones's," "Burns's."

It is used (b) in contractions to show that a letter has been dropped. Example: "Can't," "'tis." Note that "it's" is the contraction for "it is." The apostrophe is never used to indicate the possessive case of pronouns.

It is used (c) to form the plural of letters, figures, and symbols. Example: "He made his 6's look like o's." Note that it is never used to form the plural of anything else.

6. Quotation Marks: Quotation marks are used to mark a direct quotation. A quotation within a quotation is indicated by single quotation marks. Example: "He said to me, 'You're all right, Tom.'"

Note that when a quotation extends over more than one paragraph the quotation marks are used at the beginning of each paragraph, but only at the end of the last one.

7. The interrogation point, exclamation point, and the parenthesis explain themselves. The bracket [] is used for a comment interpolated by the editor. Example: The rest of our party are weak from starvation. . . . [Here the MS. is so blurred by exposure that what follows is illegible.] Of the dash it needs only to be said that it marks an abrupt break in the thought and should rarely be used.

8. Capitals: The capital letter may also be considered as a form of punctuation. It is used (a) at the

beginning of a sentence, a line of poetry, and a direct quotation amounting to an entire sentence.

(b) It is used for proper nouns, adjectives, and personal titles. Example: England, Latin, General Joffre.

(c) It is used also for important words in titles of books, plays, etc. Example: A Tale of Two Cities.

(d) It is used to mark names and pronouns referring to the Deity, as in this sentence.

Exercise.—Punctuate the following selections:

But he could not stand it long and getting Vaughan to say he might go back he beckoned me down into our boat As we lay back in the stern-sheets and the men gave way he said to me Youngster let that show you what it is to be without a family without a home and without a country And if you are ever tempted to say a word or to do a thing that shall put a bar between you and your family your home and your country pray God in His mercy to take you that instant home to His own heaven Stick by your family boy forget you have a self while you do everything for them Think of your home boy write and send and talk about it Let it be nearer and nearer to your thought the farther you have to travel from it and rush back to it when you are free as that poor black slave is doing now And for your country boy and the words rattled in his throat and for that flag and he pointed to the ship never dream a dream but of serving her as she bids you though the service carry you through a thousand hells No matter what happens to you no matter who flatters you or who abuses you never look at another flag never let a night pass but you pray God to bless that flag

Old Jervis lays down that great broad back and lashes his oar through the water with the might of a giant the crew catch him up in another stroke the tight new boat answers to the spurt and Tom feels a little shock behind him and then a grating sound as Miller shouts Unship oars bow and three and the nose of the St Ambrose boat glides quietly up the side of the Exeter till it touches their stroke oar

Take care where youre coming to It is the coxswain of the bumped boat who speaks

Tom finds himself within a foot or two of him when he looks round and being utterly unable to contain his joy and yet unwilling to exhibit it before the eyes of a gallant rival turns away towards the shore and begins telegraphing to Hardy

Now then what are you at there in the bows Cast her off quick Come look alive Push across at once out of the way of the other boats

I congratulate you Jervis says the Exeter stroke as the St Ambrose boat shoots past him Do it again next race and I shant care

EMPHASIS

Position.—We have already seen that the position of a word in a sentence is important for clearness. It is equally important for emphasis. The strategic places in a paragraph, a whole composition, or a speech are the beginning and the end. This fact holds true of the sentence also, except that, as a rule, the end is far more important than the beginning. In a short sentence or an exclamation a writer gains emphasis sometimes by putting his most important word at the beginning, where it attracts attention by being out of its natural order. Example: "Great is Diana of the Ephesians!" But the general rule is, *put the most important word at the end*. Example: "Democracy has always been a product of the pioneer, it seems to me." Note the improvement in emphasis when the sentence reads, "Democracy, it seems to me, has always been the product of the pioneer." In this case the word "pioneer," which is the most important in the sentence, is put at the most important position, the end. The word of next importance is "democracy," and this stands in the next important place, the beginning.

It follows, therefore, that parenthetical elements, whether words or phrases, should be stowed within the sentence instead of usurping either of the important positions. Thus, in the example given above, the weak parenthetical phrase "it seems to me" ruins the sentence when it comes at the end, but is inoffensive when tucked into the middle. This principle is specially applicable to words like "however," "moreover," "nevertheless," and "therefore." Example: "McClellan, however, was too cautious in risking his men."

Conciseness.—The number of words used in a sentence affects emphasis as well as position. Wordiness is fatal to emphasis, and brevity is a great power for emphasis. Proverbs, familiar quotations, and other popular sayings stick in the mind because they carry so much thought packed into so little space. For the military man especially, conciseness is most desirable. His sentences should stand the same rigid test of efficiency that he applies to the rest of his work, and he should be ashamed to use three words where he could use one. As a matter of fact, several of the famous examples of terseness have come from the soldier or the seaman; for example, the "Veni, vidi, vici" of Cæsar, the "We have met the enemy and they are ours" of Perry, and the recent salute of an American officer at the tomb of Lafayette, "Lafayette, nous voilà."

Sometimes the wordiness of a sentence may be cured by striking out a needless word or phrase, without changing the rest. Example: "He used that much too overworked word 'camouflage.'" Better, "He used that overworked word, 'camouflage.'"

Sometimes the trouble is due to a direct repetition of the thought. Example: "The pioneer went West in search of liberty and freedom." In this case "liberty" means exactly the same thing as "freedom"; one or the other should be used, but not both.

Sometimes wordiness comes from a weak round-about way of saying a thing, and the only cure is to revise the whole sentence. Example: "The result (of the shot) was final, and to the best of my knowledge and to the knowledge of the other officers, the U-boat went to the bottom immediately." All that is needed here is, "The U-boat sank immediately."

There is also a form of wordiness that consists in bringing in unnecessary details. Some minds suffer from a desire to drag in a fact anyhow, no matter if it has no connection with the point or the story. Nothing is more slipshod or tiresome than this kind of writing. The weakness at its worst is illustrated in the conversations of garrulous women in all literatures, but it is liable to beset almost anyone to a degree. To an officer making out a report, for example, it is essential that he cut out everything that does not bear directly on the subject in hand.

EXERCISE

A. Write a paragraph on the blackboard, discussing the value of conciseness to a naval officer. Go over it in detail to see, first, if the important words stand in the important places, and, secondly, if you have stated the points in the most compact way.

B. Condense the following sentences and place the important words in the emphatic positions:

1. Roumania was completely surrounded by the hostile forces of her enemies.

2. Decatur was a man noted for his courage and bravery.
3. There were several among these midshipmen of the French war to whom we owe a very great deal of those of our naval traditions that have come down to us from the war of 1812.
4. Lord Kitchener was a man who was good at organizing and building up the army, but was very slow to adopt new and fresh ideas about military matters.
5. Huxley, as well as being one of the foremost scientists of his day, besides being the "bull-dog" of Darwin, was a famous educator, too.
6. The Stoics believed that virtue should be placed above everything, and that ascendancy of reason should overcome affection.
7. For, as soon as one goes out any place or to do some task, there are certain things we learn to do and also others not to do from experience and observation.
8. When President Wilson said that the present war has shown that the Monroe Doctrine should be established for the world, he had the extension of the present doctrine in mind.
9. This doctrine, that every country, large or small, shall not be molested by any other nation, in its fight for existence, has proved itself to be very substantial and in adherence with the rights of liberty and freedom that is so clear to every man.
10. President Wilson has also seen the benefits of the Monroe Doctrine, and can foresee the great change and advancement of civilization, and the right to govern by the governed, without being subject to an overwhelming uphill fight by some nation that wishes to extend its territory regardless of consequences.

CHAPTER IV

WORDS

English is a composite of two great language groups, the northern, or Teutonic, and the southern, or Latin. In addition to these two main sources it has levied tribute on almost every other language under the sun, because the English-speaking peoples have been explorers, traders, and colonizers, and whenever they found a word that they needed they took it outright instead of trying to translate it into an English word or phrase. This practice makes an interesting contrast with that of the Germans, who, if they must have a new word, patch it together out of German word elements, sometimes in imitation of the foreign word, sometimes on a strictly German model. To the German mind it is unpatriotic to use a foreign word. For instance, most of the world has been satisfied with "telegraph," which is made up of two Greek words, but the German insisted on making up a substitute of his own, "fernschreiber"—"far-writer"—which is simply a German compound made in imitation of the word telegraph. So, also, while the other belligerents referred to certain military machines as "tanks," the Germans preferred the longer but unimpeachably German word "sturmpanzerkraftwagen," or "storming-armored-power-wagon." These two facts, the double source of the English language and the contributions of so many other languages through travel and conquest, make the English language the richest storehouse of words in the world.

Good Use.—Among the words in the language it is easy to distinguish certain classes. Some are so old-fashioned that we meet them only in poetry or the phraseology of Scripture. As such words are no longer in use, they are called “archaic” or “obsolete.” Others are called “provincial,” because although they are in every-day use they are heard only in limited sections of the country. For example, “I guess” has long been the characteristic phrase of the New Englander, while the corresponding phrase of the Southerner is “I reckon.” A third class of words and phrases we use in speaking, but avoid in writing, because they are too informal, just as a smoking jacket is not appropriate for the street. Some of these are called “colloquial”—informal contractions like “can’t,” or even more informal words and phrases like “all right,” “hold on a minute,” “you bet!” Others are called “slang,” which is too familiar to need explanation. Words of this class are not dignified enough for formal writing.

Thus, in selecting words, we must choose the word that is in use to-day, that belongs to the whole nation, rather than to any section, and that has the stamp of propriety. When a word answers to these requirements of “present use,” “national use,” and “reputable use,” it is said to be in “good use.”

The Dictionary.—The dictionary is, of course, the great authority for the study of words. It answers the question whether a word is in good use, by indicating in parenthesis if it is archaic, or colloquial, or provincial. The dictionary tells also how the word should be spelled, how it should be pronounced, what different meanings it may have, and what was its origin. The

parentage of a word, or its "etymology," is not nearly so dry a subject as it might seem, for many of our words in every-day use prove on examination to be fossil bits of history.

Exercise.—Look up the derivation of six of the following words, and write a brief but carefully constructed paragraph on the origin of the one that struck you as most interesting:

bombastic	alderman	stirrups	vixen
fond	cavalier	explode	treacle
boycott	candidate	wedlock	martinet
doom	peculiar	minister	person
disaster	knave	manufacture	pencil
torture	starboard	cheater	solemn
bedlam	forecastle	gossip	pompous
gerrymander	villain	nincompoop	tattoo

Spelling.—The dictionary is the authority for the spelling of a word, but it does not help the writer to learn to spell by means of rules. Spelling is so irregular in English that few rules can be formulated that have any practical value. Every troublesome word must be learned by heart.

For instance, one of the most exasperating traps in spelling is the question of *ei* or *ie*. The following jingle does fairly well:

"I before e,
Except after c,
Or when sounded as a
As in 'neighbor' or 'weigh.'"

But the words "seize" and "inveigle" promptly upset it as an absolute rule.

A helpful means is what is known as "substitution"; that is, when in doubt about what an unaccented vowel is in a word, substitute for it another form of

the word that has the accent on that vowel, making clear what it is. For example, barb-rous, barbarian; gramm-r, grammatical; exhil-rate, hilarity; rever-nt, reverential.

A rule that may be depended on is the following: An accented syllable, ending in a single consonant, preceded by a single vowel, doubles the final consonant when an ending beginning with a vowel is added. Examples: control, controlling; clān, clannish; swim, swimmer; expel, expelled. On the other hand, the unaccented syllable does not double the consonant; as, travel, traveler; * answer, answering; profit, profitable; marvel, marveled.*

The most important aid is the notebook. Write on a separate page every word misspelled in a theme or an examination, and make sure that the same words shall never trip you again. The following words are a few of those that are constantly giving trouble:

all right (not alright)	accommodate	abbreviate
embarrass	recommend	efficient
privilege	seize	battalion
separate	siege	acknowledgment
business	permissible	necessarily
pursue	serviceable	exhibition

Pronunciation.—Here again the dictionary is the authority. For the purpose of indicating accurately how a word should be pronounced the dictionary uses a set of arbitrary signs called "diacritical" marks. Learn the system of marking the quality of the vowels, and be prepared to give the sound represented by any one of the marked vowels in the "Guide to Pronunciation," p. VIII, *Webster's Collegiate Dictionary*.

* In these cases the doubled consonant is permissible, but it is not the preferred form.

Exercise.—Bring to class the following words with the pronunciations indicated exactly as in the dictionary. Be prepared to go to the board and write these words, or some other familiar words, with the proper diacritical signs over the vowels, the separation into syllables, and the proper accents:

alias	aviation	faucet	opponent
almond	bouquet	gratis	peremptory
allies	commandant	harass	really
alternate	detail	hospitable	recall
architect	debut	Italian	report
ask	exquisite	literature	veille

Accuracy.—Nothing in the study of words is so important to the naval officer as accuracy. In his letters and reports the words are instruments for conveying his meaning to the mind of the person addressed. Those instruments must therefore be exact, accurately fitted to the thought they must convey, and they must be handled with understanding.

Words Often Confused: In order to use words intelligently it is necessary to distinguish accurately between words, especially words that are misused in common speech.

Exercise.—Look up in the dictionary the meanings of the following words, and write in the notebook the difference in meaning between the members of the pairs indicated: (1) Affect, effect (verb); (2) transpire, happen; (3) fix, mend; (4) accept, except; (5) emigration, immigration; (6) council, counsel; (7) continual, continuous; (8) exceptional, exceptionable; (9) quite, very; (10) principal, principle; (11) liable, likely; (12) aggravate, annoy; (13) mutual, common; (14) start, begin. Be prepared to show the distinctive meaning of each word by original sentences.

In the search for the right word one soon discovers that few synonyms are exact equivalents. As a rule, there is an important shade of meaning that distinguishes one synonym from another, and one who

would learn to use words accurately must not only have a supply of synonyms at his command, but he must understand their individual shades of meaning.

For example, examine the following synonyms for the word *courage*: Boldness, bravery, daring, fearlessness, fortitude, gallantry, hardihood, intrepidity, mettle, pluck, resolution, spirit, valor. Among these it is easy to pick out a considerable variety of meaning. "Fortitude" suggests the courage of patient suffering, while "daring" suggests the courage of active adventure. We would speak of the "pluck" of a child, but hardly of his "valor" or "gallantry." "Boldness" suggests something more aggressive than "fearlessness," and "resolution" is certainly weaker than "intrepidity."

Exercise.—1. Look up the following synonyms of the word "say," and point out what differences in meaning may be found: Declare, claim (that), announce, assert, maintain, affirm, allege, declare, state, contend.

2. Differentiate between these adjectives: Grand, gorgeous, splendid, magnificent, great, fine, admirable, excellent.

Specific Instead of General Words: A general word is a class name, a specific word is the name of an individual member of the class. For instance, *mankind* is a general word, *General Joffre* is a specific word. Among verbs, the word *say* is general, the other words in the list given above would be specific. Of course, the distinction between specific words and general words is largely one of degree; that is, *mankind* is general with reference to *Frenchmen*, but specific with reference to the larger class, *vertebrates*; and *Frenchmen* would be general with reference to *General Joffre*. General terms are invaluable; in fact, the progress of

science may be said to be marked by the fixing of general terms that group the related individuals together. Nothing could be organized without general terms. A library, for instance, classifies its books by means of broad general terms like "history," "fiction," "biography."

The great temptation, however, due to mental laziness, is to let the general word do when a specific word is needed. The advantage of the specific word is that it is sharp and accurate. It gives the mind something definite instead of the blurred impression left by a general word. Compare the vividness of saying "The old man shuffled along the path" with the vagueness of "The old man went along the path." Suppose an officer who is ordered to make observations on a Pacific island reported that there is "very good anchorage" at a certain point. Instantly the question arises, what does he mean by a "good anchorage"? What kind of ships could anchor safely, and how many? What sort of bottom is there? The word "good" hardly tells anything. Try to make every statement sharp and definite by choosing the specific word instead of the general.

Exercise.—Bring in a list of specific words for the general words "walk," "think," "bad," "pain." Be prepared to show the difference in shades of meaning.

Definition of Words: The moment one attempts to discriminate between words, one feels the need of defining precisely what each word means. Many heated discussions amount to nothing because the debaters are using the same word in utterly different senses. Many other discussions are still more hopeless because the

writer or speaker does not know himself exactly what he means by a word that he is using with the greatest emphasis. "Nature," "democracy," "socialistic," "un-American," "patriotism," suffer much from this kind of abuse.

In his work on *Naval Strategy* Admiral Mahan has occasion to use the term "combination." He pauses in his discussion to make clear exactly what the word means in his use of it:

The word "combination" suggests a thought and a warning in which perhaps you may see the fad of a writer. In studying warfare, as in every other subject, do not despise words, nor be indifferent to the precision and fullness of their meaning. I dare say this talk about Compromise and Adjustment may have seemed twaddle or hair-splitting; but be sure that a man who thinks clearly will soon want to speak clearly, and to have accurate words in which to express his thoughts. . . . If words are capable of two meanings, the hearer may get the wrong one of the two. Remember, then, that combination does not mean merely putting things so together that they no longer mean two things,—that is, a composite effect,—but one thing, a single effect. The difference is somewhat like that between gunpowder and nitroglycerine, a mechanical mixture and a chemical combination, and there results a like disparity of power. A force divided equally among several passes is not a combination, for there is no oneness of effort. The same force stationed centrally, with minor divisions in the several passes as described is a combination—one harmonious whole; one, not in their being only one part, but that the several parts are so related, and so subordinated to a single head, that they are practically and essentially one, possessing the unity of an organism.

Naval Strategy, p. 389.

In the foregoing selection Admiral Mahan tried to explain the word "combination" as used in a special sense in naval strategy. The method he used may be

called a description of the term ; it explains the meaning by the use of synonyms, illustrations, comparisons, and the like. Another method is that of definition. The word means, from its derivation, setting the limits. In defining a word, then, we draw a dividing line round it, but the line must be accurate enough to include all that the term means and yet leave out everything that the term does not mean. Hence the making of an accurate definition is a process of clear thinking.

A scientific definition consists of two parts, the nearest class in which the term can be identified, and the difference, or characteristic, that marks it off from the rest of that class. For example, the definition of the term parallelogram would run as follows :

<i>Term</i>	<i>Class</i>	<i>Difference</i>
A parallelogram is	a quadrilateral figure	whose opposite sides are parallel.

What are the requirements of a good definition?
 (1) As we have noted, it must include all that the term covers and no more ; (2) it must not contain as a part of the definition the word to be defined ; (3) it must be brief ; (4) it must be clearer than the term itself. Point 4 does not always hold of certain scientific definitions which attempt to take a familiar term and fit it into a scientific formula. Life, for instance, was defined by Spencer as " The constant adaptation of internal relations to external relations." To most people the word life is not made clearer by such a definition, but to the scientific world it came as a valuable statement of what life is. As a general rule, however, if the definition does not immediately add to the clearness of the term it is a failure.

Exercise.—A. Bring to class definitions of five of the following terms as assigned: Circle, marines, democracy, turbine engine, gentleman, efficiency, football, section leader, duty officer, barrage fire, battle cruiser, midshipmen's "rates."

B. Criticize the following definitions:

1. A square is when all sides are equal.
2. A violin is a stringed instrument played with a bow.
3. Forestry is looking out for trees.
4. Man is an animal that can think.
5. Religion is the worship of God.
6. A senator is one who represents his State in Congress.
7. The executive officer is the one who is the executive on board ship.
8. A destroyer is a small warship.
9. A chair is an article of furniture that one can sit down on.
10. A pen is something to write with.

Appropriateness.—Besides accuracy there is one other consideration in the choice of words; namely, appropriateness. There is such a thing as "good manners" in words. Some words are vulgar, others informal, or colloquial, others are formal and dignified, and still others are "bookish" or stilted. In conversation or informal letter-writing we use words that we should never think of using in a letter to a Congressman. Others we recognize as words we have seen in books, but which sound affected in speech or ordinary writing. "Stink" and "stench" mean the same thing, but the former is informal to the point of vulgarity, while the latter is perfectly respectable. "Skipper" or "the old man" are ancient terms for the lord of the quarterdeck, but there is only one word that can be safely used in direct address, "Captain," or in an official letter, "The Commanding Officer." "Arid" is appropriate enough in a book, but anyone

who used "arid" for "dry" in conversation would seem to be putting on airs. In short, a word has not only its literal meaning, but also certain associations which greatly affect its use.

A large class of informal or colloquial words are called slang. Much of our language is made up of ancient slang, but only a small fraction of slang sticks. Slang usually gets a start by its humorous or picturesque twist, but its freshness is soon worn off by constant repetition. The curse of slang is that it paralyzes the brain by a dependence on a few stock words that serve every purpose. If the occasion arises when slang will not do, the right word is not at call. The trouble is that slang is not specific. Anything from a stiff muscle to a German atrocity is "something fierce." A group of officers or a handful of radishes is a "bunch." Whatever is satisfactory, from a naval victory to the taste of an apple, is "great," or "O. K." Constant use of slang ruins a vocabulary; the only man who can afford to use slang is the one who has such a mastery of words that he is in no danger of letting slang get the upper hand.

Local slang, like the Naval Academy jargon, is a part of the tradition of the place—its "atmosphere." It would certainly be priggish to be a student in an institution and be a total abstainer in relation to its characteristic slang. And yet, religiously as every midshipman uses it, when the question comes up as to just what a certain word or phrase means there is often a disagreement. Like every other form of slang, many a Naval Academy slang word is used for so many purposes that it loses sharpness of meaning.

Exercise.—Make a list of twelve distinctively Naval Academy words or phrases and give their equivalents in good English. As far as possible, give the meaning in the form of a definition.

Abbreviations.—No study of words is complete without an acquaintance with the common abbreviations. The following is a list of the most important. Be prepared to give the meaning of every one:

anon.—anonymous.

a. m.—ante meridiem (L., before noon).

circ.—circa (L., about).

ed.—edition.

e. g.—exempli gratia (L., for example).

etc.—et cetera (L., and so forth).

ff.—folios (the following pages).

f. o. b.—free on board (commercial phrase meaning free delivery as far as train or vessel).

H. I. M. S.—His Imperial Majesty's Ship (German); or, S. M. S.—Seiner Majestät Schiff (G., His Majesty's Ship).

H. M. S.—His Majesty's Ship (British).

incog.—incognito (unknown, with identity concealed).

inst.—instant (L., of the present month).

lb.—libra (L., pound).

MS.—manuscript.

MSS.—manuscripts.

p. m.—post meridiem (L., after noon).

p.—page.

pp.—pages.

pro tem.—pro tempore (L., temporarily).

prox.—proximo (L., of next month).

R. S. V. P.—Répondez s'il vous plaît (Fr., reply if you please; used on cards of invitation).

ult.—ultimo (L., of last month).

v. or vid.—vide (L., see; used in reference).

viz.—videlicet (L., namely).

PART II

THE LETTER, THE REPORT, AND THE SPEECH

CHAPTER V

THE NON-MILITARY LETTER

A Universal Type.—However little a man may think of himself as an author, he is sure to write letters. At its best letter-writing is a fine art, but it is not impossible to learn to write a good letter. Of course, if the writer is consciously trying for effect, he will lose naturalness and sincerity; yet if he is indifferent to form and content, he is ignoring what strongly influences popular judgment. The misspelled word and uncouth expression make a bad impression, while the courtesy and ease of a well-written note add to the writer's standing in the recipient's eyes. Many an applicant for a position defeats himself by his own letter. Further, many misunderstandings and serious blunders follow from what is carelessly written. It is necessary therefore in the study of composition to give the letter more than passing attention.

Great Letter-Writers.—Two figures in antiquity stand conspicuous as letter-writers. The first is Cicero, who treated all kinds of matters, both of state and of personal import, in letters to wife, children, and Atticus, his most intimate friend. His freedman and secretary, Tiro, collecting no fewer than 850 of them, gave them to the world. After we have read Cicero's

formal and rather austere orations, we get an entirely new picture of the great statesman, who proves to be a man full of feeling. The second great letter-writer of antiquity is St. Paul, who has given us the fourteen well-known epistles, four written to individuals and ten to groups of people organized in churches. Whether St. Paul is addressing the Romans, whom he has never seen, or "Timothy, my own son in the faith," he strikes a personal note. Thus we learn not only of the faith and shortcomings of the early Christians, and his own spiritual yearnings and conflicts, but also of his health, employment, self-support, and friends. Regularly at the conclusion of an epistle he includes special messages to be given to various individuals and the request to "greet" or "salute" this or that member of the faithful.

In the Middle Ages most of the letter-writers belonged to the clergy and their productions have but a narrow interest. In the more modern period what would not the world give if only a sheaf of letters written by Shakespeare could be discovered? They would at once answer a thousand questions in regard to his personality and growth, such as have called forth all the ingenious arguments and wild speculations on his relations to Bacon and other contemporaries. But no such luck is in store for us, for Shakespeare's age was not given to letter-writing. In the following century, Steele, Lord Chesterfield, Goldsmith, Dr. Johnson, and Ben Franklin may be mentioned as of special interest. In the nineteenth century so rich is the material, our only perplexity is what to select. Among the letter-writers distinguished in England and America stand Dickens, Huxley, Lincoln, Stevenson,

and Clemens; and the diversity of their special fields will suggest the breadth of this type of literature. As in later paragraphs several modern letters are discussed, it is enough here to suggest that while the letter of the eighteenth and early nineteenth century was rather stately and formal, the letter of our day is strikingly free and spontaneous, somewhat careless at times, but filled with the personality of the writer. Its subjective character makes it indispensable in biography. Read Stevenson's story *The Beach of Falesà*, and you can only guess as to his character. But read one of his letters and it is like hearing him talk; the brave, boyish, humorous Scotchman stands revealed.

In the study of letter-writing, we shall make a two-fold division: (1) Letters of friendship, (2) letters of affairs. The first fulfill their purpose if they give pleasure; the second always have a definite end in view. Letters of friendship, touching on subjects trifling and serious, of an infinite range, such as travel, a walk, a good dinner, new acquaintances, and promptings of the heart, at their best belong to literature pure and simple; they appeal to the imagination and kindle thought and fancy. We love these letters because they so genuinely reflect their writers. On the other hand, the letters of affairs are indispensable in social life for meeting the many little needs, as giving or accepting an invitation, and also in business for carrying on a large part of its important transactions. They may be eagerly seized for their message, but when this is extracted they are dismissed to the file or thrown unceremoniously into the waste-basket. However, it must be recognized that, while some letters belong unmistakably to the first or to the second class, most letters

between friends convey bits of useful information and even a business letter may breathe a fine courtesy that gives pleasure. Consequently, the distinction is by no means absolute.

LETTERS OF FRIENDSHIP

General Characteristics.—The modern letter is marked by three qualities,—spontaneity, sympathy, and suggestiveness; and though these qualities vary much in degree, they are what give it its life and interest.

Spontaneity.—The immediate response of the writer to his feeling or mood gives freshness and crispness to written words, such as you feel in animated conversation. Thus the man who is writing good news shows his enthusiasm, or commenting on the injustice done a friend gives vent to righteous anger. For example, Charles Dickens, strongly moved by the praise of Washington Irving, writes as follows:

My dear Sir:

There is no man in the world who could have given me the heartfelt pleasure you have by your kind note of the thirteenth of last month. There is no living writer, and there are very few among the dead, whose approbation I should feel so proud to earn. And with everything you have written on my shelves, and in my thoughts, and in my heart of hearts, I may honestly and truly say so. If you could know how earnestly I write this, you would be glad to read it—as I hope you will be, faintly guessing at the warmth of the hand I hold out to you over the broad Atlantic.

* * * * *

My dear Washington Irving, I cannot thank you enough for your cordial and gentle praise, or tell you what deep and lasting gratification it has given me. I hope to have many letters from you, and to exchange a frequent correspondence. I send this to say so. After the first two or three I shall settle down into a connected style, and become gradually rational.

You know what the feeling is, after having written a letter, sealed it, and sent it off. I shall picture you reading this, and answering it before it has lain one night in the post-office. Ten to one that before the fastest packet could reach New York I shall be writing again.

Do you suppose the post-office clerks care to receive letters? I have my doubts. They get into a dreadful habit of indifference. A postman, I imagine, is quite careless. Conceive his delivering one by himself, without being startled by a preliminary double knock.

Always your faithful Friend,
Charles Dickens.

This letter of 1842 may well be contrasted with one written in 1566 by Sir Henry Sidney to his son, Philip Sidney, then a schoolboy of twelve at Shrewsbury; note the stateliness and formality of this earlier letter:

I have received two letters written from you, one written in Latin, the other in French, which I take in good part, and wish you to exercise that practice of learning often: for that will stand you in most stead, in that profession of life that you are born to live in. And since this is my first letter that ever I did write to you, I will not that it be all empty of some advices, which my natural care of you provoked me to wish you to follow, as documents to you in this your tender age. . . .

The letter of the twentieth century permits the greatest freedom in expression. As in conversation, Clemens occasionally indulges in a bit of slang and Stevenson coins a word. Thackeray, Dickens, Aldrich, Clemens, and others show a delightful playfulness. An example is Stevenson's letter to Mr. Ide of St. Johnsbury, Vermont, in closing a document drawn up in form most legal:

I, Robert Louis Stevenson, Advocate of the Scots Bar, . . .
In consideration that Miss Annie H. Ide, daughter of H. C.

Ide, in the town of St. Johnsbury, in the county of Caledonia, in the state of Vermont, United States of America, was born, out of all reason, upon Christmas Day, and is therefore out of all justice denied the consolation and profit of a proper birthday;

And considering that I, the said Robert Louis Stevenson, have attained an age when O, we never mention it, and that I have now no further use for a birthday of any description;

Have transferred, and do hereby transfer, to the said Annie H. Ide, all and whole my rights and privileges in the thirteenth day of November formerly my birthday, now hereby, and henceforth the birthday of the said Annie H. Ide, to have, hold, exercise, and enjoy the same in the customary manner by the sporting of fine raiment, eating of rich meats, and receipt of gifts, compliments, and copies of verse, according to the manner of our ancestors.

Another example is afforded by a letter of Oliver Wendell Holmes:

Boston, February 27, 1871.

My dear Dr. Barker,—I have got both your kind letters, and my mind is at ease about what I am to do when I arrive at New York. Country folks are so bewildered, you know!

My plan is to start on Wednesday morning, as I told you, and to return on Saturday, if you will keep me so long.

If your son comes to the station, please tell him to look about until he sets his eyes on the most anxious, inquisitive, puzzled-looking passenger of the whole crew, very likely seated on the end of a valise (containing a manuscript and a change or two of linen), or hanging on to a carpet-bag, and rolling his eyes about in all directions to find the one who is finding him. Five feet *five* (not four as some have pretended) in height. Not so far from the grand climacteric as he was ten years ago. If there is any question about his identity, a slight scar on his left arm will at once satisfy the young gentleman. On being recognized, I shall rush into his arms, and attend him any whither in perfect confidence.

Yet with all the charm gained through spontaneity, in seeking it one has need of caution. Do not confuse spontaneity with hurried, slovenly expression. Even though freedom is allowed in this type of letter, marked carelessness invites ridicule and contempt. And while a painfully studied effort is apt not to produce an interesting letter, a scrawl of five minutes will quite as often fail to show the writer's real feeling. It is only when you give your whole self that you can be a good friend and write a friendly letter.

A second caution is, guard against undue familiarity. If in society we often have cause to regret taking liberties, or to repent having said too much of a personal and confidential nature, this is doubly true in correspondence. Words spoken under excitement may soon be forgotten, but penned they are constantly turning up to embarrass us when our feelings and opinions have entirely changed.

Sympathy.—This quality which suggests your interest in your correspondent and your feeling for him is the second important characteristic of the letter. It means that the letter expresses cordiality and genuine friendliness. Too many letters from the first sentence to the last are nothing but a recital of what the writer has been doing. They are like the conversation of a man who talks only of himself, and is laughed at for his egotism. Such correspondence is ordinarily short-lived. Your feeling for your correspondent further should suggest the right tone to your letter so that you will not make the mistake of familiarity in writing to your Congressman or of pedantry in writing to your six-year-old niece. It should still more prevent your filling your letters to both with a stereotyped discussion

of "rates" and "queens" and football. As you write under normal conditions, your sympathy should have the character of responsiveness; for, as the term may suggest, you would then reply not only to specific inquiries, but to ambitions, earnest efforts, and small disappointments. You must look with your friend's eyes, seeing all he sees, but more.

Sympathy may range all the way from the message of condolence written to one who has lost mother or brother to the whole-hearted and generous congratulation sent to the former chum who is gaining success in another field. In the former case a man can ordinarily say but little, yet you would not be a friend if you were indifferent and felt no part in his distress. The expression of sympathy may be a few words of appreciation of the one who has gone, the assurance you are thinking of your friend and sharing in his sorrow, the desire to assist in any way possible, or the prayer you are offering to the great Father of us all. Quoted below is a letter of condolence from Lincoln to Mrs. Bixby, one of the most beautiful ever written. The letter explains itself. It was written without premeditation; but it came directly from a great heart, and that is why it is so appealing.

Executive Mansion, Washington,
November 21, 1864.

Mrs. Bixby,
Boston, Massachusetts.

Dear Madam: I have been shown in the files of the War Department a statement of the Adjutant-General of Massachusetts that you are the mother of five sons who have died gloriously on the field of battle. I feel how weak and fruitless must be any words of mine which should attempt to

beguile you from the grief of a loss so overwhelming. But I cannot refrain from tendering to you the consolation that may be found in the thanks of the Republic they died to save. I pray that our heavenly Father may assuage the anguish of your bereavement, and leave you only the cherished memory of the loved and lost, and the solemn pride that must be yours to have laid so costly a sacrifice upon the altar of freedom.

Yours very sincerely and respectfully,

Abraham Lincoln.

In the expression of feeling, above all else be sincere. This may seem an unnecessary suggestion, yet again and again the desperate letter-writer struggles over what he shall say, cudgeling his brains, not in putting on paper his real thought and feeling, but in composing fine-sounding phrases related to the occasion. It is a vain endeavor, for artificial feeling never can take the place of real warmth. Though tact is commonly better than "brutal frankness," it is wise not to feign a great emotion where there is none, and especially between friends there will be only great disappointments if entire truthfulness does not exist. Nothing could exceed the plainness and honesty of the following letter written by Huxley to a young American, yet such a letter is likely to be treasured as a dozen pages of pleasant, meaningless, and evasive comments would not:

Hodeslea, Jan. 31, 1895.

Dear Sir—I should have been glad if you had taken the ordinary, and, I think, convenient course of writing for my permission before you sent the essay which has reached me, and which I return by this post. I should then have had the opportunity of telling you that I do not undertake to read, or take any charge of such matters, and we should both have been spared some trouble.

I the more regret this, since being unwilling to return your work without examination, I have looked at it, and feel bound to give you the following piece of advice, which I fear may be distasteful, as good counsel generally is.

Lock up your essay. For two years—if possible, three—read no popular expositions of science, but devote yourself to a course of sound *practical* instruction in elementary physics, chemistry, and biology.

Then re-read your essay; do with it as you think best; and, if possible, regard a little more kindly than you are likely to do at present,

Yours faithfully,
T. H. Huxley.

Suggestiveness.—This is the third quality of the letter. The missive, short or long, instead of being a thorough-going treatise, should be facts and fancies, briefly expressed, with lively concrete detail. As in conversation, appeal to the imagination of the person addressed so that he will supply what is only half stated. In this selective process the writer becomes the artist; he chooses details which interest him and which will interest the reader. And it is by giving a few significant features that he makes the reader feel the whole. It is in this selective process more than all else that the letter of to-day shows development. Never before has brevity been so highly valued. Further, brevity is possible because of the greater closeness of our lives and improved communications. The newspapers, magazines, and abundance of books make it unnecessary as of old to make the letter serve as a chronicle of national events or a long dissertation on conduct and character. The letter consequently has become more personal in its tone, and whatever information there is instead of being presented in a formid-

able mass is lightened by comparisons, inquiries, and jests—all of such a character as will appeal to the one receiving the letter. In the following, written by the poet John Keats on his travels in Devonshire, note how much is addressed directly to his friend Benjamin Bailey, and how concrete and suggestive it all is:

Teignmouth,

Friday [13 March, 1818.]

My dear Bailey,

. . . . Why did I not stop at Oxford in my way? How can you ask such a question? Why did I not promise to do so? Did I not in a letter to you, make a promise to do so? Then how can you be so unreasonable as to ask me why I did not? By the by, you may say what you will of Devonshire: the truth is, it is a splashy, rainy, misty, snowy, foggy, haily, floody, muddy, slipshod county. The hills are very beautiful, when you get a sight of 'em—the primroses are out, but then you are in—the cliffs are of a fine deep colour, but then the clouds are continually vicing with them—the women like your London people in a negative sort of way—because the native men are the poorest creatures in England. . . . Scenery is fine—but human nature is finer—the sward is richer for the tread of a real nervous English foot—the eagle's nest is finer, for the mountaineer has looked into it. Are these facts or prejudices? Whatever they be, for them I shall never be able to relish entirely any Devonshire scenery. Homer is fine,—Achilles is fine, Diomed is fine, Shakespeare is fine—Hamlet is fine, Lear is fine—but dwindled Englishmen are not fine. I wonder I meet with no born monsters. O Devonshire, last night I thought the moon had dwindled in heaven.

My brother Tom desires to be remembered to you.

Your affectionate friend,

John Keats.

Form.—Although usage permits great freedom in the letter of friendship, there are certain forms for the

beginning and ending which are fairly fixed. The following are the most common :

200 Commonwealth Avenue
Boston, Massachusetts
December 21, 1917

My dear Miss Stanwood,

* * * * *

Yours very sincerely
Lawrence Francis Peabody

Ochiel Terrace
Dumfries, Virginia
February 15, 1918

Dear Duncan,

* * * * *

Cordially yours
John Graham

Grinnell, Iowa
March 15, 1916

Lieutenant J. W. Wright, U. S. N.

Navy Department
Washington, D. C.

My dear Mr. Wright:

* * * * *

Very truly yours
J. Roscoe Brown

1010 Lake Shore Drive
Chicago, Illinois
April 23, 1918

Dear Mr. Esmond,

* * * * *

Faithfully yours
Caleb J. Cosgrove

Mr. Francis Esmond
1004 Buttnell Street
Beloit, Wisconsin

Hints.—1. The address of the writer should invariably be given unless the correspondence is most intimate and frequent.

2. Terminal punctuation in the heading and at the end may be omitted—there is a growing tendency in favor of this—or it may be retained, as the more conservative still prefer. The only requirement is to be consistent.

3. Abbreviations are not regarded as the best form. Careful correspondents write in full street, avenue, and the name of the state as well as of the month. They do not begin a letter, "My dear Capt. Brown"; still worse is, "My dear Prof." Exceptions are Dr., Mr., Mrs., and Messrs.

4. "Dear Friend" or "Friend James," at the beginning of a letter, as well as "Your friend," at the close, are not in good repute and should be avoided.

EXERCISE

Write a paragraph on each of the following:

1. The letters of Lord Nelson and of Commodore Decatur compared with letters of to-day (see pp. 135, 154).

2. Elements of interest in the two letters by Commodore Perkins (see pp. 142 ff.).

Write the following letters as assigned:

1. To your brother, describing your first impressions of the Naval Academy, similar to that of Grant on the Military Academy (see p. 136).

2. To a former school fellow, your junior, who has recently secured a principal appointment to the Naval Academy.

3. To your old chum, who is in college.

4. To your last principal or headmaster, who has asked how the course in English at the Naval Academy compares with that at the school.

5. To a friend whose engagement has been announced.

6. To your cousin on the death of his father.

LETTERS OF AFFAIRS

General Characteristics.—Letters of this class, since they are written with a definite purpose, belong not so much to the arts as to the utilities. A man invites a friend to lunch with him, or orders a copy of *Romeo and Juliet* to be sent as a present; his thought is in the first case to make absolutely clear the occasion, the time, and the place; and in the second case to make definite not only the book, but particularly the edition and style of binding, the name and address of the friend to whom it goes, the inclosure of his card to accompany the present, and the opening of an account on which the charge shall be placed. The second calls for more particulars than the first, but is less likely to produce anything like literature; for the informal invitation may suggest the occasion with enthusiastic expectation of the friend's coming. The more formal the note, the less the variation that is permitted. Thus in writing the formal invitation or the reply all we have to do is to follow a model. The same practice is followed by many large business houses in thousands of letters they send out every week. In our study, we shall consider each type separately and begin with those that are less formal and more akin to letters of friendship.

Notes of Thanks.—Some one remembering that you have a birthday has sent you a book, or some one's mother has entertained you during the holidays in her home. The least that you can do is promptly to write a note of appreciation. Thanks deferred is thanks diminished. Do not be so foolish as to flatter or to praise extravagantly, but, on the other hand, do not hesitate to make much of the kind thought and happy

surprise when writing of the present, and the little comforts and pleasures when dwelling on the visit. Many a young man must wait long before he can make an adequate return; but of one thing he can be sure: with genuine people gratitude is always appreciated.

A "bread and butter" letter distinguished by unusual charm is the following by Thomas Bailey Aldrich to William Dean Howells:

Ponkapog, Mass., Dec. 13, 1875.

Dear Howells,—We had so charming a visit at your house that I have about made up my mind to reside with you permanently. I am tired of writing. I would like to settle down in just such a comfortable home as yours, with a man who can work regularly four or five hours a day, thereby relieving one of all painful apprehensions in respect to clothes and pocket-money. I am easy to get along with. I have few unreasonable wants and never complain when they are constantly supplied. I think I could depend on you.

Ever yours,

T. B. A.

P. S. I should want to bring my two mothers, my two boys (I seem to have everything in twos), my wife, and her sister.

Formal Invitations.—In inviting a friend to a home dinner, you would use a form shorter than that of the letter of friendship, but not essentially different; that is, you write the note in the first person and besides asking him to come you say something agreeable as if to give a foretaste of the good cheer of the dinner. If, however, the invitation is to a wedding, a large reception, a mess dinner, or any dinner distinctly formal, it will be given in the third person and the conventional form is rigidly followed. In answering this

you use the first or third person according to the form of the invitation. The following are established forms:

Rear Admiral and Mrs. William Blake request the pleasure of Mr. Roland Crenshaw's company to meet General Haig, Wednesday, March twenty-second, four to six o'clock.
1815 Connecticut Avenue.

Mr. Roland Crenshaw accepts with pleasure Rear Admiral and Mrs. William Blake's kind invitation for March twenty-second to meet General Haig, four to six o'clock.
1025 Massachusetts Avenue.

Mr. Harold Sands regrets extremely that he is unable to accept Rear Admiral and Mrs. William Blake's kind invitation for March twenty-second.
The New Willard.

Mrs. Horace Chase requests the pleasure of Midshipman Howard MacBride's company at dinner, Saturday, May thirtieth, at seven o'clock.
Acton.

Midshipman Howard MacBride accepts with pleasure Mrs. Horace Chase's kind invitation for dinner, May thirtieth, at seven o'clock.
Bancroft Hall.

* Captain James Parker accepts with pleasure Colonel and Mrs. Malcolm Stewart's kind invitation to the wedding and reception of their daughter Margaret Angus and Lieutenant

* Many people make a difference between an invitation to a wedding and one that includes also an invitation to the reception. To the latter they reply according to the form suggested. But when their invitation is merely to the wedding, they consider that no response is necessary unless they cannot be present—when they would send two cards.

Rupert Osgood Stanislaw, U. S. Army, on Saturday, June twenty-first, at twelve o'clock.

1800 Rhode Island Avenue.

The Wardroom Officers of the U. S. S. New York request the pleasure of the company of the Wardroom Officers of the U. S. S. Delaware at dinner, at seven o'clock, Monday, June tenth.

The Wardroom Officers of the U. S. S. Delaware accept with pleasure the kind invitation of the Wardroom Officers of the U. S. S. New York for dinner at seven o'clock, Monday, June tenth.

Hints.—In the formal invitation and reply note:

1. The month and day are never abbreviated, and if given are written in full.

2. The accepting or declining is done at the time of writing; consequently never say, "Mr. Bruce regrets that he will be unable to accept. . . ."

3. An invitation to dinner should be answered within twenty-four hours.

4. In accepting an invitation to dinner, repeat the hour mentioned by your hostess. It serves to assure her that you have correctly informed yourself of the time.

Exercise.—Write the following as assigned:

1. A note thanking your hostess for week-end hospitality.
2. A note thanking the mother of your chum for a birthday remembrance.

3. An informal invitation to lunch.

4. A note accepting the invitation just given, and also one declining it.

5. A formal invitation to a dance, and a note of acceptance.

6. A formal invitation to a dinner, and a note of regrets.

BUSINESS LETTERS

Buffalo Meter Company
Buffalo, N. Y.
March 18, 1918

Mr. Harold S. Baldwin, Local Mgr.
Waldorf Service Co.
Waldorf, Md.

Dear Sir:

We have your letter of the 15th, and as soon as the meters you are sending us for repairs arrive they will receive our best attention.

We do not find you rated in commercial agency books, and have never done business with you; so the meters will be shipped with the repair charges C. O. D. If you prefer you may write us references and we shall probably have time to communicate with them before the meters are reshipped.

Under separate cover you will receive copy of catalog, giving detailed description of our meters and accessories.

Trusting that we may be favored with your further orders, we are

Yours very truly

Buffalo Meter Co.
By W. J. Chillew, Sales Mgr.

General Characteristics.—The letter just quoted will serve to illustrate several features wherein the business letter differs from the letter of friendship already discussed: (1) Not only the name of the person to whom the letter is written, but his post-office address appears at the beginning; (2) the communication is impersonal in character; (3) abbreviations such as N. Y., Co., C. O. D., and Mgr. are permitted—it is the practice, however, of some business houses not to use them; (4) since definiteness and brevity are essentials, the communication that is being answered is first referred to; then the subject of chief importance

is treated. After this other subjects of secondary importance are taken up in separate paragraphs.

Two cautions should be added: (1) Do not in your haste use sentences without predicates. Elliptical expressions like "Yours of the 15th rcd. and contents noted" are slovenly in character and are not countenanced by business men of the best standing. Confusion and errors are frequently the result of such a practice, and the economy in the saving of a few words is liable in the end to be extravagantly wasteful. (2) Be courteous in tone. This seems like an unnecessary suggestion, yet many a man in attempting to be forceful becomes sharp and vituperative. It is not good manners to be disagreeable, and by abuse one loses rather than gains.

Letter of Request.—Among the business letters an officer frequently has to write are such as a request for an appointment, a request to study a process in a manufacturing plant, an application for membership to a golf club, etc. In this type among the important particulars commonly are: Who you are, what you are requesting, when or for what period you request it, and why you request it. As a rule, these should be stated with exactness, as will be seen from the following:

U. S. S. Kansas
Norfolk Navy Yard
Norfolk, Va.
12 May, 1917

Mr. John R. Cranston
25 Granby St.
Norfolk, Va.

My dear Sir:

Understanding that you are the owner of a meadow of about three acres bordering on the Elizabeth River, near the

Farinholt Mills, I am writing to gain permission for the enlisted men of this ship to play baseball there during the next month (ending 15 June), while the Kansas is in drydock.

Of course there would be some trampling of the grass, and on the acre or two which we use for the diamond and out-fields we should have to keep the grass cut short. Otherwise we guarantee on departure to leave the meadow in as good condition as we find it.

We shall be glad to pay a reasonable amount for the use of the meadow out of funds subscribed to by the men. I need hardly add that wholesome out-door recreation is essential to the health and happiness of the men, and that in granting the permission sought you will be rendering a service to the Navy.

Yours very truly

Charles F. Adams
Lieutenant, U. S. Navy

Another kind of request is that issued by a bureau or office asking for bids. The following is a good example:

IN REPLY ADDRESS
BUREAU OF ORDNANCE
NAVY DEPARTMENT
AND REFER TO NO.
33143 (D2)-O
MLF

NAVY DEPARTMENT
BUREAU OF ORDNANCE
WASHINGTON, D. C.

April 3, 1918.

Subject: Requesting proposals.

Sirs:—

The Bureau requests that you submit a proposal containing rate of delivery and price for such of the following material as you are able to manufacture:

*300 5-inch 51-caliber Mark VIII guns and Mark VII breech mechanisms.

400 4-inch Mark IX mod. 5 guns and Mark VIII breech mechanisms.

300 3-inch Mark X A.A. guns complete with breech mechanisms.

416 3-inch 50-caliber Mark VI guns complete with breech mechanisms.

An asterisk is placed opposite the type of guns which you are now engaged in manufacturing, on account of which it is believed you can make the most advantageous proposal and obtain the greatest production. Should you desire drawings of guns other than those now under manufacture, it is requested that the Bureau be informed immediately.

All proposals in connection with the manufacture of this material should be received in the Bureau by noon April 15, 1918.

Very truly yours

Ralph Earle

Rear Admiral, U. S. N.

Midvale Steel Company,

Chief of Bureau

Via Naval Inspector of Ordnance,

Philadelphia, Pa.

Letter of Complaint.—Because of the unsatisfactory quality of some article purchased or the carelessness of an employee you find it necessary to write for a correction. In this it is wise to begin with the assumption that the business house and its employee have not intentionally robbed or insulted you, and further to take it for granted that they will welcome the opportunity for reparation. Ordinarily you will find this to be true, and in other cases by having taken this tone you may put even the surly on their best behavior. Be careful not to overstate your grievance, and give a detailed account of what is wrong. Finally, if an adjustment is a simple matter, indicate what you wish

done. The following letter illustrates many of these points:

U. S. S. Brooklyn
San Francisco, Cal.
14 Nov., 1916

The Brown and Burton Co.
140 State St.
San Francisco, Cal.

Gentlemen:

I am returning the gold watch which you so courteously sent to me by special messenger on 12 November. The trouble is it will not go; it stopped last night without apparent cause, and on being started has stopped since. As I shall be sailing for the Philippines within three days, I have not time to call and look at other watches, one of which would undoubtedly prove satisfactory. Consequently, I shall have to avail myself of the offer you made before I ordered the watch and ask you to refund the money. You may give the \$30 due me to the bearer, Seaman R. W. Williams.

Regretting to have caused you this trouble, I am

Yours very truly
T. W. Barclay

To offset the occasionally needed criticism or complaint, one should be equally quick to recognize what is to be commended. The following is a good example:

IN REPLY ADDRESS
BUREAU OF ORDNANCE
NAVY DEPARTMENT
AND REFER TO NO.
(N3-13)
SM

NAVY DEPARTMENT
BUREAU OF ORDNANCE
WASHINGTON, D. C.

May 29, 1918.

Subject: Service given by American Brass Co.

Sirs:

The Bureau takes this occasion to bring to the Company's attention the splendid service given by it in the past six months. The work done by the Washington office has been especially helpful. It has repeatedly been necessary to ask

for special service of some sort or other from the Company; this usually being in the nature of expediting deliveries of material either contracted for directly by the Bureau or ordered by contractors for Bureau work. The Bureau has made a practice of taking these matters up by telephone with the Company's Washington office and in every case has obtained either immediate action upon its request or a thoroughly satisfactory explanation of the Company's inability to meet the Bureau's requirements.

The Company may be assured that the work being done by its organization is of the greatest assistance and is contributing directly to the winning of the war.

Very truly yours,

Ralph Earle

American Brass Co.,
Waterbury, Conn.

Rear Admiral, U. S. N.
Chief of Bureau.

Letter of Introduction.—A friend going to a strange city where you have friends, or having cause to make a request of a business house or individual with whom you may have influence, asks for a letter of introduction. Such a letter it is customary to make specific, with a brief statement of who the friend is, what is his position or standing, and what is your purpose in introducing him. If it is a letter written for one who is seeking employment, you would add the length of time you have known him, your estimate of his abilities, and your knowledge of his work.

44 High Street

New Haven, Connecticut

July 1, 1916

Mr. Charles A. Brodie

Editorial Staff, *New York Times*

New York City

My dear Brodie:

This will introduce Mr. Oliver Ellsworth, who is seeking a position as stenographer in the office of one of the large

newspapers, for he is hoping to make journalism his profession.

Mr. Ellsworth, who has just graduated from Yale College, has during the past two years acted as my clerk. This service was of course in addition to his college study. I have found him always alert and interested. He is absolutely reliable.

If you can make a place for him, you will be doing me a favor, and incidentally you may also be doing yourself a good turn.

Cordially yours
Jonathan Trumbull

Exercise.—Write the following letters as assigned:

1. Recommending a young man of your home town who is seeking employment.
2. Introducing a former schoolmate going to Chicago (or some other city), where you have friends who can help him socially.
3. Subscribing to *Scribner's Magazine*, which you are making a present of to your mother.
4. To Brentano's, Washington, ordering a copy of all textbooks in English you are using.
5. To the A. G. Spalding Company, New York, on returning a defective tennis racquet recently purchased.
6. To the Wm. H. Hoskins Company, 904-6 Chestnut Street, Philadelphia, making an appointment for the discussion of matters relating to the publication of the *Lucky Bag*.

CHAPTER VI

OFFICIAL CORRESPONDENCE

A Matter of Regulations.—In most of the letters just considered a great deal of freedom was allowed. In many it made little difference how the principal subject was approached or how much diverse matter was included provided it all suggested the work and play, the whole-hearted interest of the writer. With the official correspondence of the Army and the Navy it is quite different; there should ordinarily be no question as to form, for in both branches of the service it is governed by official regulations, in which principles are laid down and certain models furnished. In spite of the information thus available, there is, nevertheless, a lack of uniformity which commanding officers of shore stations, ships, and bureaus are constantly bewailing. Inasmuch as all officers have to write official letters, and the excellence or carelessness of statements, orders, and reports may be the making or the unmaking of a career, this subject is plainly one for study.

Origin of the Form.—Until a few years ago the beginning and the ending of the official letter employed a stately and cumbersome form much like that used in social correspondence a century ago. That is, the letter began "Sir," reserving the name of the officer or office addressed until the end; the subject was introduced in the first paragraph by conventional and

meaningless phrases as "I have the honor to request—" or "I respectfully submit—" ; and the letter concluded "Respectfully" or "Very respectfully," according to the writer's feeling of superiority or humility. In the formal courtesies John Paul Jones took great pride and excelled all others. He ends a letter written to Franklin, 6 March, 1779, as follows:

I am with grateful and real Affection and respect
Honored and dear Sir,
Your very Obligated
very Obedient
very humble Servant
Jn. P. Jones.

In 1910 Secretary of the Navy George von L. Meyer, seeking modern and businesslike methods, adopted a suggestion that came originally from the Cleveland Commission on Efficiency. Promulgating this by the Navy Department General Order No. 89, dated 15 November, 1910, he established a new form for all official correspondence. The Army followed shortly afterwards with substantially the same form, to be found in the War Department General Orders No. 23, of 5 August, 1912. Finally, the English Navy, it is interesting to note, replaced its old-time ceremonious form by what is essentially the same as ours. The date of the change was 27 July, 1917, which was but a few weeks after the first American destroyers had arrived in European waters and entered upon their important service in coöperation with the British. If our influence has thus counted for something with our ally, we may well recall that the American Navy in its begin-

nings shaped its organization and discipline almost exactly according to the British model.

Fundamental Principles.—The official letter is the exact antithesis of the friendly letter. Whereas the latter glows with the personality of the writer, the official communication is strictly impersonal. "The office speaks and not the man." It is expressly ordered by the *Navy Regulations* that it shall be "free from any expressions of a personal nature"; and that "all official communication intended for officers holding positions with recognized titles shall be addressed to them by title and not by name."

Further, the *Navy Regulations* states that officers should aim at accuracy, simplicity, conciseness—three qualities that sound the keynote of the military communication. These terms are too familiar to need comment, but how to exemplify them is not always so simple.

FORM OF OFFICIAL LETTERS

Heading.—Begin the letter with the name of the ship or station, the place (at sea, give latitude and longitude, if exactness is necessary; otherwise use the expression, "Passage, to"), and the date. If the letter is from the commanding officer of the ship, station, or office, having a regular correspondence with the Navy Department, place a file number in the upper left-hand corner of the page. After the date, in a series beginning to the left, write "From" with the name of the writer and rank, or his official position; "To" with the name of the person or office addressed; and "Subject" with the central thought of the letter

briefed as for filing. An excellent rule of the Army is that what is given under Subject shall be not more than 10 words long. When the letter must be transmitted through an official channel, indicate this by "via," which follows the person or office addressed. Next by "Reference" invite attention to letters or orders designated by (a), (b), (c), etc.; these are indicated briefly by the name of the writer or bureau (contractions are used where possible), the file number, and the date. Finally after "Inclosures" if there are any, mention the number that are being sent with the letter. The form used in the beginning will be clear on referring to the specimens in the latter part of this chapter.

Body of the Letter.—The *Navy Regulations* requires that correspondence "must be courteous in tone . . . , but courtesy shall be indicated by the substance and feeling expressed rather than by artificially polite phrases and formulas." Bearing in mind the basic principles of accuracy, simplicity, and conciseness, the writer should at once, without preliminaries, take up the principal subject of the letter. The organization of the material is treated later under "Types of Official Letters." Paragraphs are numbered 1, 2, 3, etc.; sub-paragraphs are marked (a), (b), (c), etc., and the letters run consecutively without regard to paragraphs.

Signature.—In concluding the letter use no ceremonial terms preceding the signature, but immediately after the last paragraph sign your name. In the Navy this is written without adding rank. In the Army the rule is the same if the name, regiment, and corps, or

department, have already been announced in the heading ; but when only the office has been given, the writer must include these particulars at the end. In this disagreement the practice of the Army has obvious advantages, and the Navy would be saved many references to official lists if it adopted a like rule.

Indorsements.—The *Navy Regulations* directs that “applications for leave shall be addressed to those authorized to grant it.” The same rule applies to applications for duty and transfer and to requests for instructions. Also the *Navy Regulations* prescribes that “no written communication shall be received as official which is not forwarded through the prescribed channels,” and further that a communication to any superior authority shall be sent “unsealed to his commanding officer to be by him remarked upon and forwarded.” In most requests it is this remark or indorsement of the commanding officer that determines whether or not they will be granted. The indorsement follows on the last page of the letter separated by half an inch, or on a sheet added. The file number of the indorsement appears in the upper left-hand corner, with the heading and signature as in a letter ; it is not customary to repeat the subject, however, unless the indorsement is on a page added to the original letter. When there are two or more paragraphs in the indorsement, they are numbered as in the letter. In most cases, the comment of the commanding officer is restricted to the very fewest words, as “Forwarded” or “Forwarded, approved.”

TYPES OF OFFICIAL LETTERS

The Request.—

No. 46/5-LAK/N

U. S. S. Chesapeake *

Cristobal, C. Z.

21 September, 1914

From: General Storekeeper

To: Bureau of Ordnance

Via: Commander, 1st Division Submarine Flotilla,
Atlantic Fleet

Subject: Collapsible heads for B. L. Mk. IV torpedoes

1. It is requested that eight (8) collapsible heads for use on Bliss Leavitt Mk. IV torpedoes, Nos. 1024, 1023 (C-3), be shipped to this vessel as soon as possible.

2. These torpedoes, without heads, for the C-2 and C-3 were received on 2 July and 3 September, respectively.

Roscoe T. Brown

.....
1st indorsement

U. S. S. Chesapeake

Cristobal, C. Z.

21 September, 1914

To: Bureau of Ordnance

Via: Commander, 1st Division Submarine Flotilla,
Atlantic Fleet

1. Forwarded.

S. A. Maxwell
.....

* This letter and most of the others employed in this chapter have been gleaned from the fleet, the bureaus, or the Naval Academy. They have been changed only in respect to names and unimportant particulars. Although they may not be models of rhetoric, it is thought that they have an interest that invented examples could not possibly possess.

2d indorsement

First Division, Submarine Flotilla, Atlantic Fleet
U. S. S. C-3, Flagboat
Cristobal, C. Z.

22 September, 1914

To: Bureau of Ordnance

Forwarded, approved.

W. O. Richardson

In the letter just quoted four important particulars, stated or implied in most requests, are to be noted; (1) Object requested; (2) time; (3) reason; (4) place. Thus in the request which is used more often than any other in the service, for leave of absence, you begin at once with the object (*e. g.*, "I request leave of absence for days"); next you state the days when the leave is to begin and to end, under some conditions even specifying the hours; then you state the purpose for which you request this leave—when you are asking for a short leave that will in all probability be granted, this is frequently omitted; finally, in a separate paragraph you give the place—your address during leave—so that in emergency you can be recalled by mail or telegraph.

The Statement and the Report.— $\frac{16}{2}$

U. S. Naval Academy
Annapolis, Maryland
16 April, 1918

From: Midshipman H. B. Bunce, Third Class

To: The Commandant of Midshipman, via 1st Battalion
OfficerSubject: Statement in regard to conduct report of 15 April,
"Failure to sign list when going on cross-country
walk"

1. On Sunday afternoon Midshipman T. R. Gordon and I
left for a cross-country walk, forgetting to sign the list on

the table of the midshipman in charge of the floor. During the walk we discovered the omission and returned at once and reported the fact that we had failed to sign to the midshipman in charge.

2. I am submitting this statement in order to prevent any incorrect impression that the act may have been deliberate. It was entirely a case of forgetfulness; we had no reason whatever to wish to avoid signing, and reported the fact as soon as possible after we discovered the omission.

Harold B. Bunce

.....
1st indorsement

U. S. Naval Academy
Annapolis, Maryland
17 April, 1918

From: Commandant of Midshipmen
To: Midshipman H. B. Bunce, Third Class

1. Not satisfactory, warned. Your action in returning and reporting your negligence was right. Your failure to sign the list previous to your absence from the Academic limits left no means of accounting for you. In case it had become necessary to give you orders or instructions, the time of the Duty Officer and Duty Midshipman would have been needlessly spent in searching for you.

E. W. Fulton

U. S. S. Alaska
At Sea

14 September, 1917

From: Ensign P. A. Logan, U. S. N.
To: Commanding Officer
Subject: Week's maneuvers; report on
Reference: (a) C. O. Order, 11 Sept., 1917

1. In accordance with reference (a) the following report relative to the week's maneuvers is submitted:

(a) Personnel.

It was found that several men in the Engineer's Divisions became sea sick as soon as the ship got out in the open sea,

and numerous men in the firerooms could not do their work properly, owing to inexperience and conditions comparatively new to them. After being out three to four days they improved. The value to the service of being at sea is, in my opinion, very apparent.

(b) Material.

The communication between the firerooms is, in my opinion, inadequate. It is recommended that the voice tubes from Nos. 2 and 3 firerooms be extended to Nos. 1 and 4 firerooms with suitable bell system for them. The natural ventilation of No. 1 fireroom is very poor. The efficiency of boilers Nos. 1, 2, 3 and 4 is thereby impaired and causes added hardship to the men. It is therefore recommended that the intake to ventilators in No. 1 fireroom be changed so as to improve this condition.

(c), (d), and (e) No remarks.

P. A. Logan

There is no essential difference between the statement and the report. The former, used more especially at the Naval Academy, is commonly a brief letter dealing with a particular occurrence or condition, which the midshipman is invited to explain. The report, though often just as brief, is usually more comprehensive; it is the record submitted by an officer to his superior, relating to regular and special duty, usual and unusual conditions, important occurrences, etc. Exact, specific, and concise information is a requisite in each. In the report of some important service the essentials may be analyzed as in the battle report, which will be next considered.

The Battle Report.—The military and the naval report are absolutely indispensable for the writing of history. Again and again in studying operations of the Civil War, the historian must go to the *Army* and the *Navy War Records* to scrutinize and harmonize the

statements of the Union and Confederate officers found in their reports. These vast collections of official letters are not history, but they constitute materials out of which history is made. In spite of the fact that they are not models of rhetoric and may be crude in other ways, they represent an earnest effort to select out of the mass of bewildering details the few significant facts, and to give the Government such concise information as would insure a close touch with affairs. The early period in history in which we have no official reports coincides with the time when our knowledge of military operations is vague and unsatisfactory. For accuracy and conciseness there are few records to compare with this type of the official letter. And there is no practice in composition more valuable than that of taking a complex action and reducing it thus to simplest terms. To think in terms of a report is to think clearly and logically.

Stated in simplest terms the essentials of the battle report are :

1. Time.
2. Place.
3. Action.
4. Attendant circumstances.
5. Results.
6. Observations.

If the report is long and detailed, the first paragraph may be a summary, giving time, place, occurrence, and perhaps result compressed in three or six lines. The later paragraphs will then amplify these particulars, and make them more definite by adding the circumstances or conditions and perhaps interpreting the whole by some pertinent comments or observations.

The *Navy Regulations* directs that in the report of a battle or of any important service, the commanding officer should forward with his own communication the reports made to him by the executive and other officers. Thus the executive would tell in detail of the conduct of officers and men; the ordnance officer would tell of the ammunition expended and the service of particular guns and gun crews; and the surgeon would give a detailed statement of the killed and wounded. If the ship sustained any injury, a diagram would very likely be included to make this clear. In the report of the battle of Jutland, June, 1916, Admiral Jellicoe followed the common practice of submitting several maps and diagrams to make clear the geographical location of the action and the maneuvering of the several divisions.*

REMARKS

1. **Prompt Acknowledgment.**—Promptly acknowledge all official communications except such as require neither action nor reply.

2. **Separate Letters.**—Write separate letters on separate subjects.

3. **Writing of Dates.**—In the writing of dates the practice of the Naval War College, placing the day before the month, is preferable. This has already been largely accepted in the fleet. Uniformity is desirable, or there will be hopeless ambiguity when the date is expressed in figures; *e. g.*, "6/8/18."

* For older as well as modern battle reports, see "Examples" in the latter part of the book. Though they show considerable variation in form, they will repay study.

4. **Titles in Address.**—As already stated, all official communications for officers holding positions of recognized titles are addressed to them by title and not by name; *e. g.*, "The Secretary of the Navy," "Bureau of Navigation," "The Superintendent," "The Commandant of Midshipmen," "The Commander-in-Chief, Atlantic Fleet," "The Commanding Officer."

5. **Abbreviations of Titles.**—

Rear Adm.	Rear Admiral.
Capt.	Captain.
Comdr.	Commander.
Lt. Comdr.	Lieutenant Commander.
Lt. (j. g.)	Lieutenant, junior grade.
Ens.	Ensign.
Mid.	Midshipman.
Chap.	Chaplain.
Med. Dir.	Medical Director.
Surg.	Surgeon.
P. A. Surg.	Passed Assistant Surgeon.
Pay Dir.	Pay Director.
Paym.	Paymaster.
Asst. Paym.	Assistant Paymaster.
Naval Constr.	Naval Constructor.
Civ. Eng.	Civil Engineer.

6. **Official Designations of Ships and Men.**—The official designation of every ship of the Navy is the name preceded by "U. S. S." In case of a letter from the office of a flag officer, "Flagship" follows in the heading the name of the vessel. In the body of the letter, however, omit these designations as well as "U. S. N." after the name of an officer or enlisted man; but write "M. C." after the name of a marine officer.

7. Information for Operations.—"All official communications to the Navy Department or to its bureaus, officers, or boards, referring to movements of ships in commission for sea service, or to their condition, repair, or availability for sea service, and all other official communications which contain information of a character international, political, military, or otherwise possibly affecting the operations or disposition of any force under the control of an officer in command, afloat, shall be addressed to the Secretary of the Navy (Operations) or to the bureau or office concerned via the Chief of Naval Operations."

U. S. Naval Regulations.

8. Confidential or Secret.—Communications confidential in character should be inclosed in an envelope so marked; this envelope in turn is inclosed in another addressed as usual, and may be sent by mail. If the communication is "Secret," it cannot be transmitted by mail, but must be delivered by the hand of an officer.

9. Applications and Requests.—In applying for duty or requesting a change of orders, address the letter to "The Secretary of the Navy (Navigation)." In most communications to the Navy Department, the rule is, address the Secretary of the Navy with the name of the bureau or office to which the subject-matter pertains in parenthesis. In addressing the envelope, put the bureau or office in the lower left-hand corner.

10. Your Attention Is Called to.—This expression is used only by a senior officer writing to a junior, and carries with it a mild reproof, such as would be needed in bringing to mind an order or regulation that had been ignored. It should be distinguished from "Your

attention is directed to" (senior officer to junior), and "Your attention is invited to" (junior to senior), which convey no such unfavorable suggestion.

11. The Memorandum.—Communications of lesser importance are frequently written not as an official letter, but as a memorandum. This, except as it calls for some action on the part of the recipient, requires no acknowledgment. Being less formal in character, it is sent not through official channels, but direct.

12. Sketches and Diagrams.—Make frequent use in reports of various aids to clearness, such as sketches, diagrams, maps, or tables. One of these devices may make unnecessary several paragraphs or pages of explanation.

13. Signing for Another.—When signing a letter for an officer, in whose absence you are in command or in charge, except when left in command of a ship or a division, write "Acting" after your signature. When in charge of a section of an office and authorized to sign mail for your section, write "By direction" after your name.

14. Use of Printed Forms.—When printed forms are supplied for making reports, acknowledging orders, or submitting information, use the forms and be careful to observe the accompanying instructions.

15. Legibility.—Write legibly, without erasure or interlineation, on only one side of the page, using whenever you can a typewriter.

16. Spacing.—Before and after "Subject," "Reference," and "Inclosures," and between paragraphs use a double space; elsewhere use a single space. If writing with a pen use single spaces throughout.

17. **Paper.**—In the selection of paper, use that prescribed by the *Regulations*, white linen typewriting paper, 8 by 10½ inches, 4½ pounds per ream of 500 sheets. Write carbon copies for file on green paper.

18. **Numbering and Arrangement of Pages.**—When writing two or more pages, number each in the middle one-half inch from the bottom. Arrange them consecutively, placing the first page on the bottom, the last page and indorsements on the top. This is done in order that the last indorsement may be seen and further indorsements added without disturbing the rest of the letter, which is often held together by fasteners. Fold the letter twice, parallel with the writing, making three equal folds.

SPECIMENS

I

100
2

U. S. Naval Academy
Annapolis, Maryland
22 December, 1917

From: Midshipman F. O. Munson, Fourth Class

To: The Superintendent, via Commandant of Midshipmen

Subject: Leave of absence; request for

1. I request leave of absence from 12 m. 22 December till 6.30 p. m. 25 December, to go to my home. My mother has been ill, and her attending physician has advised that I come home.

2. As the amount due me at the Midshipmen's Store is not enough to take me home, I request permission to draw the necessary traveling expenses from my pay account.

3. If this request is granted, my address will be 200 Church Street, Asheville, North Carolina.

F. O. Munson

.....

1st indorsement

U. S. Naval Academy
Annapolis, Maryland
22 December, 1918

From: Commandant of Midshipmen

To: Midshipman F. O. Munson

1. Returned. Leave during the Academic year is not granted except in case of critical illness of father, mother, brother, or sister.

2. By telegraph, ascertain your mother's condition and request money to go home. As your pay is definitely planned to meet your current expenses at this station, it cannot be used for other purposes. If in answer to your telegram you should learn that your mother is critically ill, take the message, together with this request, immediately to the Duty Officer, informing him whether or not you have been able to secure money for traveling expenses. He will instruct you as to further procedure.

E. W. Fulton

II

22
I

U. S. Naval Academy
Annapolis, Maryland
7 September, 1917

From: Midshipman A. O. Hurley, Fourth Class

To: The Commandant of Midshipmen

Subject: Statement in regard to report, "Late for first period formation," conduct report of 6 September, 1917

1. I was at Sick Quarters when formation was called. On coming down I reported to the Officer of the Day, who took my name and instructed me to report at the class, which I did.

A. O. Hurley

.....

1st indorsement

U. S. Naval Academy
Annapolis, Maryland
8 September, 1918

From: Commandant of Midshipmen
To: A. O. Hurley, Fourth Class

1. Satisfactory. You were reported absent because the Officer of the Day has no discretion in the matter of turning in the names of those who are actually absent from a formation. When the absence is investigated and found to be in accordance with authorized procedure, no demerits are assigned. In reporting to the Officer of the Day after returning from Sick Quarters you followed the proper procedure.

E. W. Fulton

III

151
9

U. S. Naval Academy
Annapolis, Maryland
31 March, 1918

From: Midshipman S. O. Blackburn, Third Class
To: The Commandant of Midshipmen, via Third Battalion Officer

Subject: Statement in regard to report "Late to a. m. roll call," conduct report of 29 March

1. My tardiness was unavoidable, due to inability to get my blouse collar hooked.

2. On 28 March I struck my thumb and tore a large portion of the nail off, down into the quick, rendering it very sore. I had just had my blouse repaired, and as the tailor made the collar too tight it was very difficult to get it hooked.

3. I turned out promptly at reveille and dressed as fast as possible, hindered as I was by my thumb.

4. I ran all of the way to formation and late blast sounded just as I stepped into ranks.

S. O. Blackburn

.....

1st indorsement

U. S. Naval Academy
Annapolis, Maryland
1 April, 1918

From: Commandant of Midshipmen
To: Midshipman S. O. Blackburn, Third Class

1. Not satisfactory, warned. There was sufficient time between reveille and formation for you to get in ranks before late blast sounded. You should have been in ranks and there reported to your company commander the reason for your inability properly to button your blouse and hook up your collar.
E. W. Fulton

IV

U. S. Naval Academy
Annapolis, Maryland
11 May, 1918

From: Midshipman J. B. Forsyth, Third Class
To: The Commandant of Midshipmen

Subject: Statement in regard to conduct report of 10 May,
"Not turned out at reveille"

1. My roommate and I invariably call each other when reveille sounds, but on the morning in question, my roommate was on duty and I overslept.

2. This statement is submitted not in any desire to avoid the demerits, but in explanation of the conditions under which the delinquency occurred.

J. B. Forsyth

1st indorsement

U. S. Naval Academy
Annapolis, Maryland
11 May, 1918

From: Commandant of Midshipmen
To: Midshipman J. B. Forsyth

1. Not satisfactory. The responsibility for being turned out rests entirely with you. Reveille was sounded at the

proper time by the buglers. Alarm clocks may be obtained from the Midshipmen's Store, and it is incumbent upon you to use one if you have difficulty in hearing the bugle. You must not depend upon someone else for the proper performance of your individual duty. This principle is far-reaching and will apply to every act of your life in the Navy.

2. You will be assigned 10 demerits and called one-half hour before reveille for one week commencing 12 May.

E. W. Fulton

V

U. S. Naval Academy
Annapolis, Maryland
10 May, 1917

From: Midshipman L. M. Noyes, First Class

To: The Secretary of the Navy (Navigation), via Superintendent

Subject: Orders to U. S. S. Wyoming; request for

1. I request that, upon my detachment from the Naval Academy after graduation, I be ordered to duty on board the Wyoming.

L. M. Noyes

.....

1st indorsement

12-142

U. S. Naval Academy
Annapolis, Maryland

11 May, 1917

From: Superintendent

To: Bureau of Navigation

1. Forwarded.

R. P. Thorne

VI

IN REPLY ADDRESS

THE SECRETARY OF THE NAVY
AND REFER TO NO.NAVY DEPARTMENT
WASHINGTON

3059

June 1, 1918

ADW

To: Midshipman H. Blakely, U. S. N., Naval Academy,
Annapolis, Md., via Superintendent

Subject: Change of duty

1. You will regard yourself detached from your present station, and from such other duty as may have been assigned you; will proceed and report for duty in accordance with following instructions; this employment on shore duty being required by the public interests:

On graduation, on or about June 6, 1918, detached to . . . , Ct., and on June 20, 1918, report to the Commander of the Submarine Base, for temporary duty under instruction.

Josephus Daniels

Copy to:

Comdr. Submarine Base, . . . , Ct.

Comdr. Submarine Force, Atl. Fleet

VII

U. S. S. Vermont *

Passage, New York to Hampton Roads

22 June, 1917

From: Midshipman B. O. Walton, U. S. N.

To: Navy Pay Office, Custom House, Baltimore, Md.

Subject: Mileage claim; request for adjustment of

Inclosure: 1.

1. Please adjust my mileage claim for travel performed in compliance with the inclosed orders.

B. O. Walton

* This letter may be sent direct to the Navy Pay Office.

VIII

U. S. S. Oregon *
San Francisco, California

27 November, 1917

From: Lieutenant (j. g.) U. V. West, U. S. N.

To: The Commanding Officer

Subject: Leave of absence; request for

1. I request leave of absence for ten days from 29 November.

2. If this request be granted, my address during leave will be Palace Hotel, Denver, Colorado.

U. V. West

.....
1st indorsement

32-3-M

U. S. S. Oregon
San Francisco, California
28 November, 1917

From: Commanding Officer

To: Lieutenant (j. g.) U. V. West, U. S. N.

1. Granted.

John Hall, Jr.

IX

U. S. Naval Academy
Annapolis, Maryland
21 November, 1917

From: Lieutenant Commander R. M. Winter, U. S. Navy

To: The Secretary of the Navy (Bureau of Navigation)

Subject: Request for sea duty

Reference: (a) Copy of Bu. Nav. letter N4/Da 5165-923,
9 June, 1917, now attached to my record

(b) 89 Alnav message

1. I request sea duty, preferably with the destroyer force operating in European waters.

* This request should be submitted through the Executive Officer, who would approve it informally by initialing it.

2. I have had no sea duty under my present commission dated 29 August, 1916.

3. If my services here cannot be spared even now, reference (a) I ask that a copy of this request be attached to my record, as by reference (b) I may be eligible for promotion to the temporary rank of Commander in December, 1917.

R. M. Winter

.....
1st indorsement

U. S. Naval Academy
Annapolis, Maryland
21 November, 1917

To: Bureau of Navigation

Forwarded, approved, provided that suitable relief is furnished. This officer has been on duty at the Naval Academy for a period of two years.

G. B. Rodney

X

Office of Naval Intelligence
Washington, D. C.
May 24, 1918

MEMORANDUM

FOR LT. COMDR. WILLIAMS, BUREAU OF NAVIGATION,
14TH AND H STS.

Subject: Request for enrollment of Mr. W. B. Weeks, as Chief Petty Officer, U. S. N. R. F. (for Special Service)

1. Mr. Weeks is registered in the draft as available for limited service Class 2A (Deferred Classification). His present age is 31 years. He is registered with his Draft Board as possibly being available for Interpreter.

2. His services in the Office of Naval Intelligence, Information Section, consist in the editing of confidential information issued to the Naval Service, and preparing monographs on special subjects. His work has become indispensable to

the Office, due to the ability that he has shown, and the lack of officers and suitable assistants that could perform this character of work. I am very anxious to have him enrolled as a Chief Petty Officer. Furthermore, it would be very desirable to have him retained on his present billet permanently, as it is not one that can readily be shifted.

3. As evidence of previous training the applicant has degrees from Harvard of A. B. (1910) and A. M. (1912), the latter gained by his special studies in Business Administration.

R. K. Swanson

XI

30599 (A2)-O
ADW

Navy Department
Bureau of Ordnance
Washington, D. C.
March 13, 1918

To: Chief of Naval Operations

Subject: Nomenclature—Ordnance

Reference: (a) Bu. O. No. 30599 (A2) of February 25, 1918

1. In reference (a) the Bureau recommended that the service abandon the nomenclature for anti-aircraft guns adopted by the Fleet and by the Office of the Director of Gunnery Exercises and Engineering Performances.

2. The Bureau also invites attention to the fact that letters from the Fleet are being dated in accordance with War College practice, *i. e.*, 13 March, 1918, whereas the Navy Department uses the form, March 13, 1918. It is recommended that a standard practice be adopted and for many reasons the Bureau suggests that the War College practice be followed. Having two different ways of dating, such as above, causes some confusion when they are not written out, such as 3-8-1918, which might either mean March 8, 1918, or August 3, 1918.

Ralph Earle

Form of Official Letter Used in the U. S. Army

2039 Company B, 40th Infantry,
Fort William H. Seward, Alaska, July 19, 1912.

From: The Commanding Officer, Co. B, 40th Inf.

To: The Adjutant General of the Army.
(Through military channels.)

Subject: Philippine campaign badge. Corporal John Doe.

Inclosed are lists in duplicate of enlisted men of Company B, 40th Infantry, entitled to the Philippine campaign badge.

2 Incls. John A. Brown,
Capt., 40th Inf.

824 1st Ind.

Hq. Ft. William H. Seward, Alaska, July 19, 1912—To the
Comdg. Gen., Dept. of the Columbia

2 Incls. S. F. T.,
Col., 40th Inf., Comdg.

(Stamp) Rec'd Dept. Columbia, July 27, 1912.

[This is followed by eleven other indorsements.]

Form of Official Letter Used in the British Navy

From: The Secretary to the Commander-in-Chief, North America and West Indies.

To:, U. S. Naval Academy, Annapolis.

Date: 7th April, 1918. No. P/I.

**Subject: Method of conducting official correspondence in
H. M. Fleet.**

Reference: Your letter dated 30th March addressed to the
British Naval Attaché.

dated 30th ultimo, addressed to the British
 Legation, has been referred to me, and in reply I beg to

inform you that the revised method of conducting correspondence in H. M. Fleet was introduced by the Admiralty in July, 1917, with a view to effecting economy of work and stationery. The usual ceremonial preamble and conclusion is no longer employed.

2. A copy of the Admiralty order on the subject is enclosed for your information.

W. P. Putt,
Secretary.

Form of Official Letter Used in the French Navy

Toulon, le 26 Avril 1918.

Le Lieutenant de vaisseau Dubois, commandant le contretorpilleur Epée,

A Monsieur le Capitaine de vaisseau, chef de Division.

Commandant,

Demande de permission de 30 jours.

J'ai l'honneur de vous adresser, en vous demandant de bien vouloir la transmettre à l'autorité supérieure une demande de permission de 30 jours à partir du 12 Mai 1918 pour affaires personnelles, à passer à Lyon, 18 place Bellecour.

[Signature]

Transmis avec avis favorable
à Monsieur le Vice-amiral
Commandant en Chef l'Armée navale.

Toulon, le 27 Avril 1918.

[Signature]

Approuvé

Le Vice-amiral Commandant en chef
l'Armée navale.

p. o. le contre amiral, chef d'Etat-Major.

[Signature]

DISPATCHES

Under this heading are included telegrams, cablegrams, and radiograms. They are not to be used when communication by mail will answer the purpose. Make all dispatches as brief as possible, and word them so as to be clear without punctuation. Confirm a dispatch by mailing a copy marked "Confirmation of telegram (cablegram) (radiogram) sent (hour) a. m. (p. m.) on (day)"; and when it is necessary write a letter giving additional information in regard to the subject of the dispatch.

DISPATCH (Via Telegraph)

1. Seattle, Washington
26 November, 1917
Secretary Navy
Washington, D. C.
Portland arrive 10328 08026
U. S. S. New Orleans

NOTE.—This dispatch reports that the New Orleans is sailing from Seattle, Washington, at 8.00 a. m., 26 November, 1917, for Portland, Oregon, and expects to arrive at 10.30 a. m., on 28 November.

2. Seattle, Washington
26 November, 1917
Secretary Navy
Washington, D. C.
Bremerton 08026
U. S. S. New Orleans

NOTE.—This dispatch reports that the New Orleans is sailing for Bremerton at 8.00 a. m., 26 November, 1917. The expected hour of arrival is not stated as the voyage will take less than 48 hours.

DISPATCH (Via Cable)

1. Shanghai, China
26 November, 1917
Secnav, Washington, D. C.
Brooklyn 15426
U. S. S. Brooklyn

NOTE.—This dispatch, reporting that the Brooklyn has arrived at Shanghai, is signed "U. S. S. Brooklyn" because this is the senior ship present. Abbreviation of "Secretary Navy" is permitted only in cables and radiograms.

2. Shanghai, China
26 November, 1917
Secnav, Washington, D. C.
Helena 15426
Flag Brooklyn

NOTE.—This dispatch is from the flag officer on the Brooklyn, who is evidently Senior Officer Present Afloat at Shanghai. He is reporting the arrival of the Helena at that port.

3. Shanghai, China
26 November, 1917
Secnav, Washington, D. C.
Helena Hongkong 23529 16226
Flag Brooklyn

NOTE.—This dispatch, from the Senior Officer Present Afloat, reports that the Helena sailed for Hongkong, China, at 4.20 p. m., 26 November, 1917, and expects to arrive at 11.50 p. m., 29 November.

DISPATCH (Via Radio)

1. Annapolis, Maryland
26 November, 1917
Secnav, Washington, D. C.
Arrived Annapolis, Md. 07426
U. S. S. New Hampshire

NOTE.—Radio messages may be enlarged slightly in order to be explicit, but at the same time brevity is important. If

this message were transmitted by radio to shore for further transmittal by wire, the word "arrived" would be omitted.

2. U. S. S. Wyoming
26 November, 1917

Navsta, Annapolis

Please report Wyoming arrived Annapolis Roads 19326
U. S. S. Wyoming

NOTE.—This message means that the Wyoming arrived in Annapolis Roads at 7.30 p. m., 26 November, 1917, and that the Commanding Officer desires the Superintendent to report the fact by telegraph to the Navy Department, which would be done as follows:

3. Secretary Navy
Washington, D. C.
Wyoming Annapolis Roads 19326 20126
Navsta, Annapolis

NOTE.—Ships' movements are more frequently reported to the Chief of Naval Operations, and the dispatch is addressed, "Operations, Navy Department, Washington, D. C."

Messages sent from the Navy Department for the information of all sections of the Communication Service, or for one or more sections, begin with the following abbreviations:

ALNAV (All ships and shore stations of the Navy.)

ALATL (All ships and shore stations in the Atlantic, Gulf of Mexico, and Caribbean Sea.)

ALPAC (All ships and stations in Pacific, excluding Guam and Asiatic stations.)

ALASIA (All ships and stations in Asiatic waters, including Guam, Peking, and Yokohama.)

All four types of messages are numbered consecutively (separate series for each type) from 1 January to 31 December of each year.

Paraphrases of Dispatches Received in Code

1. I C C 1796

From: U. S. S. Greene

To: Opnav

U. S. S. Greene forward magazine flooded between one p. m. and six p. m., Saturday. Yard workshop men changing location flood-control, chart house. Large amount ammunition probably unfit for use, consisting eleven hundred rounds one-pounder anti-aircraft. No other damage done. Have requested Board of Investigation. 12420.

U. S. S. Greene

20 May, 1916, 2.06 p. m.

2. I C C 3958

From: U. S. S. Rowan

To: Opnav, Washington

The U. S. S. Rowan was blown ashore Tuesday morning by heavy gales in St. George Harbor, but the ship was not damaged. Slightly bent tips of two blades of starboard propellers fouling coal lighter; damage insignificant. The vessel touched in the side of the bank abreast of the bridge and keeled over. After compartment was flooded through air port. 130 rounds of 3-inch and 770 rounds of 6-pounder ammunition wet. Some commissary stores, engineer, medical, ordnance, quartermaster's stores, personal effects of officers and men were submerged. These difficulties can be overcome at the dock yard. U. S. S. Rowan and U. S. S. Worden can sail Saturday at latest and will proceed as soon as possible. Ammunition stores, including torpedo-watch, charts, and sailing instructions, should be sent to the U. S. S. Rowan at the first opportunity. Some 3-inch and 6-pounder ammunition has been transferred to the Rowan from the U. S. S. Worden, and spoiled ammunition will be left at the Bermuda Islands dock yard. 16005.

U. S. S. Rowan

3.47 p. m., 9-6-17

EXERCISE

A. As a midshipman write such of the following as assigned :

1. A request for three days' leave of absence.
2. A request for extension of leave.
3. A statement explaining failure to return a library book on time.
4. A statement explaining lateness to formation for English recitation.
5. A statement explaining injury to Government property.
6. Report of collision between a cat boat of which you were in charge and a fishing boat.
7. Report of collision between a steamer in which you were in charge and another steamer during a steam launch drill.
8. Report of accident to the fire engine during fire drill.
9. Report of an accident on the rifle range.

B. As an officer write such of the following as assigned :

1. A request for ten days' leave.
2. A request to be transferred to duty on a submarine.
3. Report of the U. S. S. F-16 aground.
4. Report of suspicious conduct of seaman of foreign birth.
5. Report on the arrest of deserters from the U. S. S. Kansas.
6. Report of the heroism of a seaman in putting out a fire on the U. S. S. North Dakota.

C.

1. Criticize Lieutenant S. D. Greene's report of the battle between the Monitor and the Merrimac, p. 159. Rewrite this in the form of to-day, adding such particulars as you think are essential.
2. Rewrite Admiral Dewey's report of the battle of Manila Bay, p. 163, condensing it to two or three pages.

CHAPTER VII

THE PROFESSIONAL ARTICLE

In 1840 Lieutenant Matthew Fontaine Maury, the great scientist of our Navy, complained that the American naval officer never wrote anything of professional value. He attributed the fact to the lack of education of the naval officer, and made it one of the points in his plea for a naval school. To-day one naturally turns to the naval officer for authoritative works on subjects like seamanship, ordnance, or strategy. The lectures of Admiral Mahan at the Naval War College in Newport developed into a series of books devoted to the importance of sea power in history which influenced naval men the world over. During his life he was regarded, also, as the leading naval strategist of the world. At the present time the works of Admiral Chadwick on naval history and of Admiral Fiske on strategy and tactics continue the tradition of Mahan. Many other officers who do not write books contribute professional articles of great value to the official publication of the American Navy, *The U. S. Naval Institute Proceedings*. To stimulate interest in contributing to the *Institute*, a prize is offered annually for the best article on a designated subject. A professional magazine like this is of great value to the officer individually and to the Navy in general, because its pages are open for anyone who has a naval idea, whether he is a midshipman or an admiral. The individual officer

United Service Magazine or the *Journal of the Royal United Service Institution*. These English service magazines are a mine of valuable articles, but unfortunately the volumes have never been indexed, a fact that makes them difficult to use for reference.

For more general topics use a library. Go to *Poole's Index* or the *Reader's Guide* for magazine articles, and to the card catalog for books. Often you will need to go no further for the information needed than a first-class encyclopedia like the *New International*, which has been adopted for use in the ships' libraries of our fleet, or the *Britannica*. The library force will always be glad to coöperate in finding what you want. In general, verify everything that you offer as a fact—whether it is of history, biography, science, or statistics. Never say "statistics prove," or "it is a known fact"; give the authority.

D. Thinking Over the Material: Having marshaled the facts and the authorities, look back at the original idea that you had formulated and see if you would modify it in the light of the material gathered. Facts are dead things in themselves; they become alive only when they are acted on by thought. Thinking is the important thing. The trouble with most articles is weak, slipshod thinking on material that might have been made significant and important. The important part of an article ought to be done before the first paragraph is written, just as von Moltke won the Franco-Prussian War before a shot was fired.

E. The Outline: The process of thinking through the subject is helped by making an outline. At the top write out the idea in a single sentence, if possible,

to serve as a guide in arranging the material. Following that, jot down the main divisions of thought in whatever seems the natural order. Then test it by these questions: Does this order gain emphasis by placing the strongest point at the end? Does it gain emphasis by giving proportionate detail to what is most important? Do any of the divisions overlap? Do the points bear directly on the question? Having settled the order of the main divisions, insert the examples, illustrations, etc., as subdivisions where they belong.

For a short essay an outline like this is enough, but for an extended discussion, such as the average *Naval Institute* article, one needs to work up the outline in fuller detail, expressing each point in a sentence, or even expanding it into a short paragraph. This may seem like unnecessary and tedious preparation, but care taken in arranging the plan of an article means a great gain in the clearness of the finished product. A professional article ought to be "shipshape"; there can be as much careful construction in a naval officer's writing for publication as there is in the engines of a turret. It is often useful to keep in the finished article the chief marks of division in the outline, like I, II, III; or, better still, to use topic headings as Commander Stirling does in his "The Arrival of the Battle-Cruiser" (see p. 190). Devices like these help the reader to follow the thought because they mark distinctly the transition points.

EXERCISE

1. Analyze the essay, p. 190. First determine what the idea is, and express it in a sentence. Secondly, make an outline,

in the form of sentences, of the main divisions and their subdivisions.

2. Criticize and revise the following outline:

Football, the Best of Sports

I. It helps a man mentally because it forces him to think quickly.

II. It develops manliness because it is no game for weaklings.

a. A man must have physical courage.

b. He must not flinch from rough handling.

c. Develops self-respect.

III. It helps a man morally because it teaches him to keep his temper.

IV. It develops alertness.

a. Player must be keen to take advantage of openings.

b. He must follow signals quickly.

c. He must be quick to see what the opponents are going to do.

V. A successful football team is the best advertisement for a school.

3. Bring to class an outline for an article on one of the following subjects:

a. The Naval Academy (for your home paper).

b. The service of the Academy in the present war.

c. The system of "rates" at the Academy.

d. Professional or officer coaching for football and baseball at the Academy.

e. Sketch of some friend or acquaintance who has given his life in the war.

NOTE.—At the head of each outline write the summarizing sentence—the idea that the article should convey. Arrange the points with I, II, III, as main divisions, and a, b, c, as subdivisions.

4. Select one of the general topics given below and choose a special phase of it as a subject for an article. For example, from "The Red Cross" one might select "The Work of the

Red Cross in Italy," or "The Origin of the Red Cross Society." Make an outline to correspond, and at the top write in a sentence or short paragraph the "idea" or the gist of the article.

1. The Red Cross.
2. Tennis.
3. Track Athletics.
4. The Army Training Camps.
5. Compulsory Military Training in Peace.
6. Prohibition.
7. The Torpedo-Boat Destroyer.
8. The Submarine.
9. The Dirigible.
10. The Y. M. C. A.
11. A War Industry in My State.
12. The Liberty Motor.

Writing the Article.—When the material has been carefully thought out, the most important part of the work is done, but there are some special problems connected with writing the completed product. The first step is to set the full outline before you as a guide and drive away as fast as you can write without stopping for corrections. When the ground is covered there comes the second and more important step of rewriting. Scrutinize what you have written, words, sentences, and paragraphs; smooth out the clumsy constructions, select the better word, correct the blunders, and, above all, boil it down. In order to catch the loose ends, it is helpful to read the article aloud; or, better still, to have someone read it to you. Certain faults will challenge the ear that pass the eye unnoticed.

In this revision there are special points to be watched. In nine cases out of ten the introduction is too long in proportion to the rest of the article, and the earlier portion is liable to be developed at a greater

length than the later. The first half is leisurely and the latter half seems hurried. See, too, that you have not given more space to a minor detail than it deserves. Remember that proportion is one of the two important ways of getting emphasis. If one point is to you the most important thing in the whole discussion, see to it that it gets corresponding space.

As for introductions and conclusions, of course a short discussion requires neither. An extended article, however, ought to have an introduction and a conclusion to keep beginning and end from sounding abrupt. The introduction ought to be brief and designed to attract the reader's interest. The conclusion may be a summary of the points made, or it may state what has been called in this chapter the "idea" of the article, or it may end on the most important division of thought; at any rate, the article must not drop off on a detail. An ending of that sort gives the reader the effect of unexpectedly stepping off the curb.

Another important consideration is the style. Style is the manner of saying a thing, and sometimes the manner of saying it overshadows the thing itself. As in speaking, the mere inflection may make the difference between a compliment and a sneer; so, in writing, the same thought put in one way is dull, in another way, it sounds brilliant. An anecdote told by one man may fall flat; the born story-teller will take the same anecdote and make it a hilarious success. The highest degree of style, the original and unforgettable way of saying things, belongs only to genius. But even an ordinary man may gain a fair degree of success if he keeps a few points in mind.

First, what is the audience you are writing for? Suppose an officer is asked to write an article for *Collier's Weekly* on the work of a destroyer in the North Sea. That article, planned to interest the general public, would avoid technical language and emphasize the personal and picturesque part of the work. If the same officer were writing for the *Naval Institute* on the same general topic, he would be addressing an audience of brother officers interested in the professional side of the story. For them technical terms would be appropriate, and the professional side would be emphasized rather than the picturesque. An extended report of the cruise addressed to the Secretary of the Navy would be impersonal, extremely formal, the most compact statement of fact possible. In regard to technical terms this warning is worth noting: if a plain word does as well as a technical word, choose the plain one. Much writing in technical magazines is a gibberish of technical terms that do nothing more than kick up a cloud of dust round the thought.

A second consideration is the tone of the article. If you have a new or unpopular idea to urge you may count on considerable prejudice against it. Your purpose must be to overcome that prejudice, and you can do it only by putting the case in a modest, open-minded way. A hectoring manner will never do if you want the reader to come round to your way of thinking, and it is important to distinguish between giving an opinion, which may be debated, and a fact, which may not. It does not prove a point merely to state it in solemn and positive terms. In any case, the tone of the article should suggest the "officer and gentleman."

Diagrams.—Since the main business of writing is to make one's thought clear, words should be assisted, wherever necessary, by drawings, diagrams, maps, or photographs. A good diagram or photograph will sometimes tell more at a glance than ten pages of print. Many official reports are accompanied by diagrams, and the less formal extended report, or professional article, should be illustrated whenever there is a chance of making the meaning clearer by this means. It is worth remembering that words in themselves never give a clear picture.

The Title.—The article is not complete without an appropriate title. The plain statement of the subject is often too long. Sometimes, also, the writer would prefer not to give his whole point away at the outset. There is no rule for making titles, but it may be said that a good title is brief, fitting, and attractive.

Conclusion.—As a final word on the subject of writing, bear in mind this fact, that *99 per cent of good writing is clear thinking.*

EXERCISE

1. Write an editorial for the *Log* on some subject appropriate for that publication. (Two pages.)
2. Write a character sketch of Rear Admiral Luce based on Admiral Fiske's article (see p. 183). Condense it to two pages.
3. Write an account of Plebe summer for the *Lucky Bag*. (Three or four pages.)
4. Write the introduction and the conclusion for one of the outlines in exercise 3 or 4, p. 118. Make a title.
5. Write the entire article, keeping it within five pages.

CHAPTER VIII

THE SPEECH

Estimate of the Value.—Making a speech has little or nothing to do with the conventional study of rhetoric. The analysis of fragments of Burke, Macaulay, and Webster, or the correcting of faulty sentences from students' themes or newspapers, though enabling the student to exhibit a correctness such as an address without manuscript often does not, is likely to give him little of the spirit of the orators and their power in expression. There has been much amusement at the expense of amateur speech-makers, because orators, like poets, are born and not made. But there is no reason why every man who thinks clearly should not by training make a tolerably good short address. The training should give him the power to face an audience without marked self-consciousness, to speak freely and smoothly, to approach his subject directly, to treat it according to a logical plan, and to end it with a vigor that shall leave a lasting impression. Let this, then, be our aim.

Preparation.—First, visualize the occasion. An important question to be asked is, Who will comprise the audience? Inform yourself in every way possible as to the personnel, their character, their interests, their prejudices. What have they assembled for, and what is the purpose of your addressing them? This should suggest the point at which you begin with them and also the point to which you carry them before reaching the conclusion. An enthusiastic audience is stimulat-

ing—as a blank wall, or looking-glass is not. Bring before your mind's eye, then, those to whom you will speak; and as you jot down your notes and construct your speech let all be in anticipation of meeting that particular audience. At first many an arrow will be shot simply into space; but imagination and practice will soon enable you to improve your aim and to cover the target before you have actually seen it. Visualizing the occasion will be of the greatest service in giving to your speech the right tone, and upon that almost everything depends. Thus, in preparing a toast for a dinner given to a visiting Japanese commission, you should refrain from rubbing in—what they are likely to hear all the way from San Francisco to New York—that it was our own Perry who visited them against their will and brought them within the pale of civilization.

Having firmly fixed in mind your subject and the aim of your speech, you have next to gather the material out of which you will frame the structure. Jot down on paper all points occurring to you, stating them in briefest terms and at first without regard to order. Arrangement is a later process. Then read widely; but, if possible, use your reading only to correct your opinions or to suggest what you may have omitted, and do not look to it for your chief material. He who speaks from experience and reflection, if he has any vigor, speaks with freshness and conviction, and not in the dull, lifeless manner of a school boy repeating his lesson. Finally, if there is anything picturesque or humorous relating to your subject do not fail to give it a place. There are few audiences that do not like to be entertained.

The question of writing little or much is one which every man must settle for himself. Most men do better by not writing out their speech in full, not because this takes too much time, but because a speech that is memorized, though it gains in correctness, loses in spontaneity. Nothing is worse than the impression of groping for carefully studied words and phrases—a wretched substitute for vigorous thought boldly expressed. Since, however, so much depends on the right impression at the beginning and the ringing challenge at the end—the two absolutely vital points in a speech—an exception to this caution may well be given. Study out your first and last paragraphs with great care and memorize them. Then for what comes between trust to your outline. This may make you uncertain as to the length of your speech, and the determination of length is an important point in your preparation. Rehearse your speech, your watch before you, so as to keep within the limit. When a man, who by the nature of the occasion or by the assignment of time should speak ten minutes, speaks thirty or forty minutes, he is almost sure to have spoiled what might otherwise have been a good speech. No one will criticize you for having used less than your allotted time, but in overtime be on your guard, as you would if you had a train to catch.

Delivery.—In addressing an audience, be natural. In this and similar particulars make your public discourse like your best conversation, or like conversation ennobled. Avoid rhetorical graces and whatever savors of affectation. Webster's and Lincoln's plainness of speech was not the essential quality of their greatness, but it showed that simplicity goes fittingly

with it. When giving the speech forget about grammar. To worry about syntax is to weaken your thought. If you use *will* where you should have used *shall*, or *who* where you should have used *whom*, the public may forgive you; but it will not pardon breaking the thread of thought with the resultant confusion. Further, avoid the appearance of worrying about your hands. Keep them from your face and also from your clothing. If gestures are natural to you use them, but employ them only as they express your thought. Roosevelt, in his characteristic manner, clenching his fist and pounding the table may not be graceful, but he is vigorous; and force rather than elegance is what we may hope to gain from gestures.

Speak directly, looking at your audience—not at the floor nor at the window as if searching for a possible escape. There is untold power in the eye, and by common report the wild beast cannot stand the steady searching gaze of a courageous man. If you shrink from approaching your audience, conceal the fact by the earnestness of your gaze, and as you speak look intently, not at the mass, but at the individuals, whether fifty or three hundred and fifty. It is in order that nothing may come between you and the audience that you are urged not to read from manuscript or even to rely on notes.

Be clear and forceful in your utterance. Careless enunciation and mumbling have spoiled many a speech. Give heed to the man in the back row; if you can make him hear you, you need worry little about those who are forward. Avoid monotony in tone, and do not let the voice fall at the end of every sentence. As an aid for gaining force use short, crisp sentences, particu-

larly being careful to avoid the tiresome mannerism of beginning every sentence with "why" or loosely stringing clauses together with "and" or "and-uh."

Finally, into your delivery throw all that you can of life and spirit. Enthusiasm is contagious, and the man who feels his subject is pretty sure to make his audience feel it.

TYPES OF SPEECHES.

The Occasional Speech.—This head does not include the professional speeches such as the statesman would make in Congress, or the lawyer before the court, or the minister in the pulpit, for all these are fixed in type and are inseparably related to the various callings suggested. But there is the speech that the officer, the traveler, or some other person may be asked to give partly because of his achievements, but largely because he has an inspiring personality. It may be at the unveiling of a tablet or at a college commencement; since it is always at some special occasion, his utterance is known as the occasional speech.

The various examples of this may be grouped for the most part under three heads: (1) Expository; (2) commemorative; and (3) exhortative. The expository include literary addresses such as that by H. W. Mabie on "Poe's Place in American Literature," or scientific addresses as that by Elmer A. Sperry on "Recent Progress with the Active Type of Gyro-Stabilizer for Ships." The commemorative include the Fourth of July orations and the addresses given at memorial services on the death of a public character, or those on the anniversary of his birthday, as George Frisbie Hoar's speech at the Webster Cen-

ennial at Dartmouth College. The exhortative include the appeals made in behalf of a cause urging support and action; recent examples, having reference to America's entrance into the European War, are Joseph Choate's "Stand by the President," and Theodore Marburg's "Follow the Flag."

In the structure of an occasional speech, we may commonly note the introduction, body, and conclusion. The introduction should, above all, be not too long. A story designed to put the audience in good humor, a statement of the timeliness of the subject, a striking phrase expressing the whole in a nut shell, are common methods of approach. The conclusion should be marked by similar crispness and brevity; it may be the climax of a series of arguments, or more often it is a summary. The body of the speech should follow a comparatively simple outline; even if opportunity is given to deal at some length with a subject one does well to make three or four main points that are easily grasped rather than a dozen—for the reason that a large number of points tends to confusion, giving the audience nothing to carry away.

Important in every speech are (1) the facts and (2) their interpretation. The unpracticed speaker is apt to put too much stress on the first and too little on the second. Dullness is liable to be the result. For the speaker cannot hit on many new facts—if he is truthful—and in repeating them, he cannot be startlingly original. Indeed, his power here consists largely in the judgment shown in selecting them and the perception of relationship in grouping them. After all he must be careful, if he would keep his address simple within the grasp of his public, to introduce com-

paratively few facts. But these few that have been selected, he dwells on. Analyzing and combining them, he reaches certain conclusions, and from these conclusions, treated singly or combined, he draws further conclusions. This is interpretation. And it is this, when done with logic and vision, that gives permanent value to his speech. No better advice can be given than that of Emerson: "Trust thyself. . . . Speak your latent conviction and it shall be the universal sense."

The After-Dinner Speech.—Every officer is sure in the many dinners he attends to be called upon to make a speech. This, the most widely used type of the occasional speech, is so distinctive in character that it deserves separate treatment. Although in classic days the banquets delighted in symposiums, what is specifically known as the after-dinner speech is a modern invention. Its relation to the oration or to the more formal types of the occasional speech is much like that of the short story to the essay or the novel, and just as Americans have excelled in the short story they have led in after-dinner speaking. Lowell, Holmes, Curtis, Clemens, Choate, and Depew are but a few of those of recent years who have distinguished themselves in this sphere, never failing to provide one exceptionally good course whatever the dinner they attended. Ex-Secretary Root and Major General Wood are two examples of our day of men who have influence, due in no small degree to the friendship and support gained by after-dinner speaking.

Distinctive Features.—With nearly all peoples there is a certain sanctity about the guest. With the Greeks a stranger in the home was regarded as under the

special protection of Zeus, their chief god; and though he might be the warrior's worst enemy, if only he succeeded in reaching the hearth, the laws of hospitality insured his protection. There is no question that "breaking bread" or "eating salt" helps in getting acquainted. Hospitality therefore is the keynote of the after-dinner speech, determining what a man says and how he will say it.

Since the speech-making follows the dinner, the company have no desire for what requires mental effort. The speech must be brief. Ten minutes, for any except the guest of honor, is ordinarily as much time as a man should occupy; and if he can cut it down to five minutes he will probably be yet more acceptable. Because of its brevity the speech will be suggestive rather than complete. Seriousness may not be entirely out of place, yet it is seriousness interspersed with laughter that is more certain of welcome.

Manner.—Mindful of the complacency that marks a bountiful dinner, eaten with agreeable companions, the speaker can count on good humor. No audience is more indulgent. It is only when he wearies them by his length or offends them by treading roughly on their sensibilities that their tolerance proves unequal. Though the occasion is one marked by elegance, as is indicated by the dress of the diners, there is great freedom. It is geniality that makes a dinner successful, and to create this atmosphere naturalness, ease, and spontaneity are much more conducive than studied effort. Yet with all its seeming freedom the speaker must avoid personalities and use tact. The officer, especially at a dinner given to foreigners, is a representative of his country and an important auxiliary to the

diplomatic corps. An indiscreet remark—betraying a hostile attitude or lack of proper respect for some nation with which we are supposedly friendly—is repeated broadcast, and may become even an international matter requiring an apologetic note from the Department of State coupled with a public reprimand to the offender. On the other hand, the officer who knows how to make the most of whatever ties bind the nations and puts everybody in good humor is an equally strong force in removing prejudice and unpleasantness. Just as in the case of hospitality in the home, it is eminently fitting that a speaker should express his full appreciation to his fellow banqueters, yet as in this other case let his praise be marked by delicacy rather than by overstatement or flattery.

Structure.—Finally, there comes the question what shall the speaker say, how shall he begin, how shall he treat his subject, and how shall he end?

The most common forms for beginning are “Mr. Chairman and Gentlemen,” “Mr. President and Gentlemen of the Union League”; other shorter forms occasionally heard are “Mr. Chairman,” “Gentlemen”; and again many a speaker tiring of these conventional terms has begun without any salutation, although often introducing it later in the body of the speech. A clever anecdote may follow, in recognition of the fact that the audience craves amusement. But unless anecdotes have some point and that point is related to the toast proposed they are cheap fireworks. Geniality is essential and lightness of touch is most fitting to the occasion, but a central idea should determine the framework of every speech. The irrelevant story then is to be looked on with disfavor; yet the

case is quite different with the apt anecdote. Indeed, this is almost as useful in the middle as at the beginning. A striking analogy, however insufficient as proof, suggests and scintillates. It will serve to lighten the occasion and prevent the serious from becoming too serious. The ending, more than all else, is the critical part of the speech, for it decides what impression the banqueters will carry away with them. Let this, then, be worked out with careful detail, yet do not fail to make it short and crisp.

The officer with a large repertoire of funny stories is the one most often called upon to be the spokesman of the mess, but it is not fair to him or to the mess to let him do all the after-dinner speaking. In a final estimate the real test is genuineness, or sincerity. Is the speaker stirred by real friendliness and geniality, and does he glow with honest sentiment and conviction? This is the all-important question, whether he is speaking to a friend, to strangers at the unveiling of a tablet, or to a circle of officers at a formal dinner.

EXERCISE

A. Characterize the following audiences, pointing out the interests that a naval officer would consider in addressing them:

Chamber of Commerce of Chicago.

Daughters of the American Revolution, Charleston, South Carolina.

Union League Club of New York.

The Boy Scouts.

Mass meeting for recruiting for the Navy, Freeport, Illinois.

Naval officers composing a Japanese commission visiting the United States.

Wardroom mess of the Argentine battleship Moreno.

Naval apprentices, St. Helena Training Station, Norfolk,

B. Selecting one of the various audiences suggested, make clear what is the occasion and give three possible subjects for speeches. Choose one of these and state what would be the purpose of the speech. Give an anecdote that would make an appropriate beginning. Make another beginning, without a story, in which good spirit and geniality are emphasized.

C. Give the first paragraph, outline of main points, and last paragraph for the following as assigned:

"Washington and Lafayette" (Fourth of July celebration in Paris).

"The Past and the Present" (Memorial Day exercise in Hongkong).

"Lieutenant . . . , U. S. N." (unveiling of a tablet to an officer lost in the European War).

"What the Navy Offers to a Young Man" (dinner given by the alumni of your home school).

"The Navy as National Insurance" (dinner given by the Chamber of Commerce of Chicago).

"What the Navy Has Done to Maintain Peace" (banquet given by the League to Enforce Peace, New York City).

"Our Allies" (dinner given by the wardroom mess of the French cruiser Jeanne d'Arc).

"The Navy Spirit" (smoker given by the First Class, U. S. Naval Academy, to a new class of Reserve officers).

PART III

EXAMPLES

THE LETTER

**JOHN PAUL JONES TO ROBERT MORRIS, "AGENT OF
MARINE," 1783 ***

I have many things to offer respecting the formation of our navy, but shall here limit myself to one, which I think a preliminary to the formation and establishment of a naval constitution suitable to the local situation, resources and prejudices of this continent.

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My plan for forming a proper corps of sea officers is, by teaching them the naval tactics in a fleet of evolution. To lessen the expense as much as possible, I would compose that fleet of frigates instead of ships of the line, on board of each I would have a little academy, where the officers should be taught the principles of mathematics and mechanics, when off duty. When in port, the young officers should be obliged to attend the academies established at each dockyard, where they should be taught the principles of every art and science that is necessary to form the character. And every commission officer of the navy should have free access and be entitled to receive instruction gratis at those academies. All this would be attended with

* de Koven, *The Life and Letters of John Paul Jones*, 2 vols., New York, 1913, Vol. I, pp. 192, 194.

no very great expense, and the public advantage resulting from it would be immense. I am sensible it cannot be immediately adopted, and that we must first look about for ways and means; but the sooner it is adopted the better. We cannot, like the ancients, build a fleet in a month, and we ought to take example from what has lately befallen Holland. In time of peace it is necessary to prepare, and be always prepared for war at sea. I have had the honour to be presented with copies of the signals, tactics and police, that have been adopted under the different admirals of France and Spain during the war, and I have in my last campaign seen them put in practice. While I was at Brest, as well as while I was inspecting the building of the *America*, as I had furnished myself with good authors, I applied much of my leisure time to the study of naval architecture, and other matters that related to the establishment and police of dockyards, etc. I, however, feel myself bound to say again, I have yet much need to be instructed.

STEPHEN DECATUR TO MRS. DECATUR *

Frigate United States,
At Sea, October 30th, 1812.

My Beloved Susan,

I have had the good fortune to capture His Britannic Majesty's frigate *Macedonian*, Captain Carden, by which I have gained a small sprig of laurel, which I shall hasten to lay at your feet. I tried burning on a former occasion, which might do for a very young man; but now that I have a precious little wife, I wish

* Mackenzie, *Life of Stephen Decatur*, Boston, 1846, pp. 371, 372.

to have something more substantial to offer, in case she should become weary of love and glory.

One-half of the satisfaction arising from this victory is destroyed in seeing the distress of poor Carden, who deserved success as much as we did, who had the good fortune to obtain it. I do all I can to console him.

Do not be anxious about me, my beloved. I shall soon press you to my heart.

Your devoted,
S. Decatur.

ULYSSES S. GRANT TO MCKINSTRY GRIFFITH*

Military Academy, West Point, N. Y.

September 22, 1839.

Dear Coz: I was just thinking that you would be right glad to hear from one of your relations who is so far away as I am. So I have put away my algebra and French, and am going to tell you a long story about this prettiest of places, West Point. So far as it regards natural attractions it is decidedly the most beautiful place that I have ever seen. Here are hills and dales, rocks and river; all pleasant to look upon. From the window near I can see the Hudson—that far-famed, that beautiful river, with its bosom studded with hundreds of snowy sails.

Again, I look another way I can see Fort Putt, now frowning far above, a stern monument of a sterner age, which seems placed there on purpose to tell us of the glorious deeds of our fathers, and to bid us to remember their sufferings—to follow their example.

* Garland, *Ulysses S. Grant, His Life and Character*, New York, 1898, pp. 40-42.

In short, this is the best of places—the PLACE of all PLACES for an institution like this. I have not told you HALF its attractions. Here is the house Washington used to live in—there Kosciusko used to walk and think of HIS country and of OURS. Over the river we are shown the dwelling house of Arnold—that BASE and HEARTLESS traitor to his country and his God. I do love the PLACE—it seems as though I could live here forever, if my friends would only come too. You might search the wide world over and then not find a better. Now all this sounds nice, very nice; what a happy fellow you are, but I am not one to show false colors or the brightest side of the picture, so I will tell you about some of the DRAWBACKS. First, I slept for two months upon one single pair of blankets. Now this sounds romantic, and you may think it very easy; but I tell you what, Coz, it is tremendous hard.

Suppose you try it, by way of experiment, for a night or two. I am pretty sure that you would be perfectly satisfied that it is no easy matter; but glad am I these things are over. We are now in our quarters. I have a splendid bed (mattress) and get along very well. Our pay is nominally about twenty-eight dollars a month, but we never see one cent of it. If we wish anything, from a shoe-string to a coat, we must go to the commandant of the post and get an order for it, or we cannot have it. We have tremendous long and hard lessons to get, in both French and algebra. I study hard and hope to get along so as to pass the examination in January. This examination is a hard one, they say; but I am not frightened yet. If I am successful here you will not see me for two long years.

It seems a long while to me, but time passes off very fast. It seems but a few days since I came here. It is because every hour has its duty, which must be performed. On the whole I like the place very much—so much that I would not go away on any account. The fact is, if a man graduates here, he is safe for life, let him go where he will. There is much to dislike, but more to like. I mean to study hard and stay if it be possible; if I cannot, very well, the world is wide. I have now been here about four months, and have not seen a single familiar face or spoken to a single lady. I wish some of the pretty girls of Bethel were here, just so I might look at them. But fudge! confound the girls. I have seen great men, plenty of them. Let us see: General Scott, Mr. Van Buren, Secretary of War and Navy, Washington Irving, and lots of other big bugs. If I were to come home now with my uniform on, the way you would laugh at my appearance would be curious. My pants set as tight to my skin as the bark to tree, and if I do not walk military,—that is, if I bend over quickly or run,—they are very apt to crack with a report as loud as a pistol. My coat must always be buttoned up tight to the chin. It is made of sheep's gray cloth, all covered with big round buttons. It makes one look very singular. If you were to see me at a distance, the first question you would ask would be, "Is that a fish or an animal?" You must give my very best love and respects to all my friends, particularly your brothers, uncles Ross and Samuel Simpson. You must also write me a long letter in reply to this, and tell me about everything and everybody, including yourself. If you happen to see

any of my folks, just tell them that I am happy, alive and well.

I am truly your cousin and obedient servant,

U. H. Grant.

McKinstry Griffith.

N. B. In coming I stopped five days in Philadelphia with our friends. They are all well. Tell Grandmother Simpson that they always have expected to see her before, but have almost given up the idea now. They hope to hear from her often.

U. H. Grant.

I came near forgetting to tell you about our demerit or "black marks." They give a man one of these "black marks" for almost nothing, and if he gets two hundred a year they dismiss him. To show how easy one can get these, a man by the name of Grant, of this state, got eight of these "marks" for not going to church. He was also put under arrest so he cannot leave his room perhaps for a month; all this for not going to church. We are not only obliged to go to church, but must march there by companies. This is not republican. It is an Episcopal church. Contrary to the expectation of you and the rest of my Bethel friends, I have not been the least homesick. I would not go home on any account whatever. When I come home in two years (if I live), the way I shall astonish you natives will be curious. I hope you will not take me for a baboon.

My best respects to Grandmother Simpson. I think often of her. I put this on the margin so that you will remember it better. I want you to show her this letter and all others that I may write to you, to her. I am

going to write to some of my friends in Philadelphia soon. When they answer I shall write you again to tell you all about them, etc.

Remember and write me very soon, for I want to hear much.

**COMMITTEE OF CLASS OF 1861 TO COMMODORE CHARLES
STEWART, U. S. N., AND COMMODORE STEWART'S
REPLY**

U. S. School Ship Constitution,
Annapolis, Md.,

October 10, 1860.

To Charles Stewart,

The Senior Flag Officer, U. S. N.

Sir:

We, the undersigned, in behalf of ourselves and classmates, who enjoy the proud distinction of being the first junior class of Acting Midshipmen which has been received on board this ship do most respectfully invite you to confer on us the high honor of visiting and dedicating to her new vocation the ship you have so ably contributed to render illustrious.

When it is understood that Old Ironsides has been selected as a nursery for young naval officers on account of her great name and bright history, it will seem but carrying out the original idea to have her dedicated by one whose name is inseparably connected with her, and who is the sole survivor of those whose services are the pride and boast of our country, and who may be regarded as the father of the profession of our adoption.

If, Sir, you will consent to accept our invitation, and we sincerely hope you will give it your serious consideration, it will not only be a present source of gratification to us, but it will mark an era in our lives, to which, if we are spared, we will hereafter look back with feelings of pride and pleasure.

We have the honor to be

Yours with great respect,

[Signed by Committee of Class.]

Phila., Oct. 15, 1860

Gentlemen,

I have received your very flattering and kind invitation to visit you in your new school ship (Old Ironsides) whose noble and glorious career has spread a halo of glory so deservedly around her—and you do me the honor to remind me that I was one of the many who trod her deck on one occasion of her distinguished services.

It would afford me great pleasure to meet your wishes, but my short remaining time is so pressed upon by my public and domestic duties, that I am obliged to forego the honor of your distinguished invitation.

Accept, gentlemen, my best wishes for your progress and the attainment of your high ambition. Permit me to tender to each and all of you my respectful regards.

Chs. Stewart

To the first Junior Class of

Acting Midshipmen, U. S. Constitution.

MASTER G. H. PERKINS, U. S. N., TO HIS SISTER *


May 27, 1860.

Dear Sue,

We are now anchored off shore between Point Pedras and Majumba. At four o'clock to-morrow morning we shall get under way. When we arrive we shall fire a gun, which is the prevailing signal on this coast for notifying the natives that one wishes to trade. A few hours after this signal the coast will be lined with negroes loaded with all their produce, which consists of goats, chickens, eggs, pigs, etc., with a few mats and baskets. After the beach is well covered with natives, we have our boat manned by the Kroomen. These are huge black fellows that ship on this station for boat duty and the work ashore, which our men cannot perform in this climate. They come from the Kroo country in Upper Guinea, just south of Liberia. When they ship, the officers usually christen them by some queer name—the more ridiculous the better—and the Krooman answers to this all through the service. A special favorite of mine is called "Upside Down"; then there is another named "Frying Pan"; and a particularly big and black one is named after a delicate Annapolis belle. They seem to be almost amphibious, and it is astonishing to see them in the water.

At this season of the year the surf runs high and it is dangerous to land; at any rate we rarely escape a ducking.

* *Alden, George Hamilton Perkins, Commodore, U. S. N., and Letters, Boston, 1914, pp. 91-93.*



When the boat is ready and manned by the Kroomen, all the old bottles, old cans, ship knives, cotton handkerchiefs, old clothes, and several bottles of liquor are passed into it, and then such officers as wish to go take their places. . . .

The Kroomen strike up a song to pull by, and row four or five miles to the edge of the surf. Then they lie on their oars, and all eyes turn leeward looking for a big roller to carry them on shore. These moments of watching are exciting and you hold your breath in spite of yourself. The roller looks like a great live monster, and you do not feel at all sure how he will treat you. At length when the looked-for wave comes, the Kroomen give way with a shout, the natives on shore yell with all their might, the boat shoots forward on the top of the breaker at the rate of twenty knots an hour, while the surf thunders like the roar of a battery. Altogether it seems as if the world had come to an end, and all the fellows in the infernal regions were let loose.

Now you must trust to luck. There is no retreat, and go on shore you must, either in the boat or under it. After the few wild moments of rapid transit, the boat strikes the beach, the Kroomen jump overboard, if they are not there already, and you jump on the back of one. He runs up the beach with you out of the way of the next roller, which immediately follows the one that brought you in, and which breaks over the boat, often upsetting it, and always wetting everything inside. When the Krooman lands you from his back high up on the dry beach, if you have escaped a good thorough soaking, and are not half drowned, you are fortunate. . . .

LIEUTENANT G. H. PERKINS, U. S. N., TO HIS MOTHER *

New Orleans; April 27, 1862.

Dear Mother,

We arrived here two days ago, and after what was "the most desperate fight and greatest naval achievement on record," so every one says. Wednesday night, April 23, we were ordered to lead the way, and be ready to run by the forts at two o'clock in the morning; and at two o'clock precisely the signal was made from the Hartford to "get under way."

Captain Harrison paid me the compliment of letting me pilot the vessel. It was a starlight night, but we were not discovered until we were well under the forts; then they opened a tremendous fire on us. I was very anxious, for the steering of the vessel being under my charge gave me really the whole management of her. The Cayuga received the first fire, and the air was filled with shells and explosions, which almost blinded me as I stood on the forecastle trying to see my way, for I had never been up the river before. As I soon saw that the guns of the forts were all aimed for the midstream, I steered close under the wall of Fort St. Philip, and although our masts and rigging got badly shot through, our hull was but little damaged.

After passing the last battery and thinking we were clear, I looked back for some of our vessels, and my heart jumped into my mouth when I found I could not see a single one. I thought they all must have been sunk by the forts. Then looking ahead I saw eleven of the enemy's gunboats coming down upon us, and it

* See work last cited, pp. 117-122.

seemed as if we were "gone" sure. Three of these made a dash to board us, but a heavy charge from our 11-inch gun settled the Gov. Moore, which was one of them. A ram, the Manassas, in attempting to butt us, just missed our stern, and we soon settled the third fellow's "hash." Just then some of our gunboats, which had passed the forts, came up, and then all sorts of things happened. There was the wildest excitement all around. The Varuna fired a broadside into us, instead of the enemy. Another of our gunboats attacked one of the Cayuga's prizes,—I shouted out, "Don't fire into that ship, she has surrendered!" Three of the enemy's ships had surrendered to us before any of our vessels appeared, but when they did come up we all pitched in, and settled the eleven Rebel vessels in about twenty minutes. Our short fight with the Gov. Moore—it used to be the Morgan—was very exciting. We were alongside of each other, and had both fired our guns, and it all depended on which should get re-loaded first. The large forward gun on the Gov. Moore was a 10-inch shell, ours an 11-inch, and we were so near they were almost muzzle to muzzle.

Ours was fired first, and Beverly Kennon, the captain of the Gov. Moore, is now a prisoner on board the Cayuga. He tells me our shot was the one that ruined him,—disabled his vessel, capsized his gun, and killed thirteen of the gun's crew. Beverly Kennon used to be an officer in our navy.

The Cayuga still led the way up the river, and at daylight we discovered a regiment of infantry encamped on shore. As we were very close in, I shouted to them to come on board and deliver up their arms, or we would blow them all to pieces. It seemed rather odd

for a regiment on shore to be surrendering to a ship. They hauled down their colors, and the colonel and command came on board and gave themselves up as prisoners of war. The regiment was called the Chalmette regiment, and has been a rather famous one. The officers we released on parole and allowed them to retain their side-arms, all except one captain, who I discovered was from New Hampshire. His name is Hickery, and he came from Portsmouth. I took his sword away from him and have kept it.

The next thing that happened was the sinking of the Varuna, which had been disabled by one of the enemy's vessels running into her. Soon after this the commodore came up in the Hartford and ordered us all to anchor and take a little rest before attacking New Orleans, which was now within twenty miles.

By this time our ship had received thirty-two shots in masts and hull, and six of our men had been wounded; one of the boys had to have a leg cut off. All this time, night and day, fire-rafts and ships loaded with burning cotton had been coming down the river and surrounding us everywhere. Besides these, the bombardment was continuous and perfectly awful. I do not believe there ever was anything like it before, and I never expect to see such a sight again. The river and shore were one blaze, and the sounds and explosions were terrific. Nothing I could say would give you any idea of these last twenty-four hours.

At four the next morning, April 25, we all got under way again, the Cayuga still leading, and at about nine o'clock New Orleans hove in sight. We called all hands and gave three cheers and a tiger!

There were two more fortifications still between us and New Orleans, called the Chalmette batteries, but Captain Bailey thought they could not be of much account, and that we had best push on. When we arrived in sight of these batteries, no flag floated over them, and there was not a man to be seen—nothing but the guns, which seemed abandoned. In fact, though, there were a lot of treacherous rascals concealed in these batteries, and when we had come close enough to make them feel sure they could sink us, they opened a heavy fire. We gave them back as well as we could, but they were too much for one gunboat; so, after getting hit fourteen times, the shot and shell striking all about us, we decided not to advance any farther until some of the ships came up. Soon we had the Hartford on one side and the Pensacola on the other, and then the Rebel battery was silenced very quick.

After this there were no further obstacles between us and the city, and the fleet were soon anchored before it. Captain Bailey was ordered to go on shore, and demand its surrender, and he asked me to go with him. We took just a boat and a boat's crew, with a flag of truce, and started off. When we reached the wharf there were no officials to be seen; no one received us, although the whole city was watching our movements, and the levee was crowded in spite of a heavy rainstorm.

They were all shouting and hooting as we stepped on shore, but at last a man, who I think was a German, offered to show us the way to the councilroom, where we should find the mayor of the city.

As we advanced the mob followed us in a very excited state. They gave three cheers for Jeff Davis

and Beauregard, and three groans for Lincoln. Then they began to throw things at us, and shout, "Hang them!" "Hang them!" We both thought we were in a bad fix, but there was nothing for us to do but just go on.

We reached the city hall, though, in safety, and there we found the mayor and council. The mayor said he had nothing to do with the city, as it was under martial law, and we were obliged to wait till General Lovell could arrive.

In about half an hour this gentleman appeared—by the way he is a perfect snob. He had about 15,000 troops under his command, and said he would "never surrender," but would withdraw his troops from the city as soon as possible, when the city would fall into the hands of the mayor and he could do as he pleased with it.

The mob had by this time become perfectly infuriated. They kicked at the doors and swore they would have us out and hang us. Of course Captain Bailey and I *felt perfectly at our ease all this while!* Indeed, every person about us who had any sense of responsibility was frightened for our safety. As soon as the mob found out that General Lovell was not going to surrender, they swore they would have us out anyway; but Pierre Soulé and some others went out and made speeches to them, and kept them on one side of the building while we went out the other, and were driven to the wharf in a closed carriage. Finally we got on board ship all right; but of all the blackguarding I ever heard in my life that mob gave us the worst. . . .

**LEE TO THE BOARD OF TRUSTEES OF WASHINGTON
COLLEGE**

Powhatan County, August 24, 1865.

Gentlemen:

I have delayed for some days replying to your letter of the 5th inst., informing me of my election by the board of trustees to the presidency of Washington College, from a desire to give the subject consideration. Fully impressed with the responsibilities of the office, I have feared that I should be unable to discharge its duties to the satisfaction of the trustees or to the benefit of the country. The proper education of youth requires not only great ability, but I fear more strength than I now possess, for I do not feel able to undergo the labour of conducting classes in regular courses of instruction. I could not, therefore, undertake more than the general administration and supervision of the institution. There is another subject which has caused me serious reflection, and is, I think, worthy of the consideration of the board. Being excluded from the terms of amnesty in the proclamation of the President of the United States, of the 29th of May last, and an object of censure to a portion of the country, I have thought it probable that my occupation of the position of president might draw upon the college a feeling of hostility; and I should, therefore, cause injury to an institution which it would be my highest desire to advance. I think it the duty of every citizen, in the present condition of the country, to do all in his power to aid in the restoration of peace and harmony, and in no way to oppose the policy of the State or general government directed to that object. It is particularly incumbent on those charged with the

instruction of the young to set them an example of submission to authority, and I could not consent to be the cause of animadversion upon the college. Should you, however, take a different view, and think that my services in the position tendered to me by the board will be advantageous to the college and country, I will yield to your judgment and accept it; otherwise, I must most respectfully decline the office. Begging you to express to the trustees of the college my heartfelt gratitude for the honour conferred upon me, and requesting you to accept my cordial thanks for the kind manner in which you have communicated their decision, I am, gentlemen, with great respect, your most obedient servant,

R. E. Lee.

**RECORDS LEFT BY LIEUTENANT COMMANDER GEORGE
W. De LONG ***

U. S. Cutter Jeannette,

On the Ice, Lat. N. $77^{\circ} 18'$, Long. E. $153^{\circ} 25'$

17th June, 1881.

We break camp and start to the southward over the ice to-morrow evening, Saturday, June 18th, hoping with God's blessing to reach the New Siberian Islands, and from there make our way by boats to the coast of Siberia. The Jeannette was beset in the pack ice of the Arctic Ocean on the 5th day of September, 1879, about twenty-five miles east of Herald Island, and between

* De Long, *The Voyage of the Jeannette*, 2 vols., Boston, 1884, Vol. II, pp. 589, 590, 747, 748. De Long, who was in command of the Polar Expedition of 1879-1881, perished with a division of the expedition in October, 1881, about a month and a half after he had deposited the second record quoted.

that date and the 12th day of June, 1881, drifted to the northwest, reaching, finally, latitude N. $77^{\circ} 15'$ and longitude E. $155^{\circ} 0'$. On the last named date she was crushed by a coming together of heavy floes after a slight opening in the ice, and sunk at four A. M., June 13th. We had abandoned her and camped on the ice at eight P. M., June 12th, having saved about eight days' provisions, five boats, all tents, and other traveling gear, and more than enough clothing, arms, and ammunition. Our party consists of the following named persons, no death having occurred since our leaving the United States [here follows a list of all hands], and are all in fairly good health, no scurvy having made its appearance in our midst. I say fairly good health, because there are two officers (Lieutenant Chipp and Master Danenhower) and three men (Alexey, Tong Sing, and Kuehne) under the surgeon's charge for various debilitating causes. We have discovered and named two islands, landing upon the second one a party in charge of Mr. Melville: May 21, 1881, Jeannette Island, in latitude N. $76^{\circ} 47'$, and longitude E. $158^{\circ} 56'$; and May 25, 1881, Henrietta Island, in latitude N. $77^{\circ} 8'$, longitude E. $157^{\circ} 45'$. Excepting these islands we have seen nothing but ice since losing sight of Herald Island in March, 1880. The ice in this ocean is of the same character as that encountered north of Smith's Sound by Captain Nares, and as the prevailing winds are from the southeast this ancient ice moves slowly along to the northwest. There are no currents which are not caused by the wind prevailing at the time. Our lowest temperature in winter of 1879-80 was minus 56° Fahr., and in winter of 1880-81 minus 50° . Our highest tempera-

ture in summer 1880 was plus 46° , and thus far our highest has been plus 30° .

This month seems to be a cold one,—plus 20° to plus 25° ,—and I am inclined to think this will be a cold summer. There has never been a time that we could move a ship's length since our first besetment.

We have remained in camp since the loss of our ship in order to pack our sledges, make all our arrangements for proper traveling, and recruit our sick. We start with sixty days' provisions, and besides ourselves we have twenty-three dogs.

Geo. W. De Long, Lieutenant, U. S. N.,
Commanding American Arctic Expedition.

Semenovski Island, Arctic Ocean,
Sunday, September 11, 1881.

This record of our arrival at and proposed departure from this island is left here in case of any search being made for us before we can place ourselves in communication with home.

The Jeannette, after drifting two winters in the pack ice, was crushed and sunk on the 12th June, 1881, in latitude N. $77^{\circ} 15'$ and longitude E. 155° , and the thirty-three persons composing her officers and crew succeeded in reaching this island yesterday afternoon, intending to proceed to-morrow morning toward the mouth of the Lena River in our three boats.

A record of our doings was left at Bennett Island (discovered by us) in latitude N. $76^{\circ} 38'$ and longitude E. $150^{\circ} 31'$, and one (before the loss of the ship) at Henrietta Island (discovered by us), in latitude N. $77^{\circ} 8'$, longitude E. $157^{\circ} 45'$; and a third was left in a

boat-breaker on the ice, in latitude N. $77^{\circ} 18'$ and longitude E. $153^{\circ} 25'$.

We are all well, have had no scurvy, and hope with God's aid to reach the settlements on the Lena River during the coming week. We have yet about seven days' provisions—full rations.

George W. De Long, Lieutenant, U. S. Navy,
Commanding Arctic Expedition.

**RECORD DEPOSITED BY REAR ADMIRAL ROBERT E.
PEARY, U. S. N.***

90° N. Lat., North Pole,

April 6, 1909.

I have to-day hoisted the national ensign of the United States of America at this place, which my observations indicate to be the North Polar axis of the earth, and have formally taken possession of the entire region, and adjacent, for and in the name of the President of the United States of America.

I leave this record and United States flag in possession.

Robert E. Peary,
United States Navy.

* Peary, *The North Pole*, New York, 1910, p. 297.

THE REPORT

NELSON'S REPORT TO ST. VINCENT ON THE BATTLE OF THE NILE

Vanguard, off the Mouth of the Nile,
3rd August, 1798.

My Lord,

Almighty God has blessed his Majesty's Arms in the late Battle, by a great Victory over the Fleet of the enemy, who I attacked at sunset on the 1st of August, off the Mouth of the Nile. The enemy were moored in a strong Line of Battle for defending the entrance of the Bay, (of shoals,) flanked by numerous Gunboats, four Frigates, and a Battery of Guns and Mortars on an Island in their Van; but nothing could withstand the Squadron your Lordship did me the honour to place under my command. Their high state of discipline is well known to you, and with the judgment of the Captains, together with their valour, and that of the Officers and Men of every description, it was absolutely irresistible. Could anything from my pen add to the character of the Captains, I would write it with pleasure, but that is impossible.

I have to regret the loss of Captain Westcott of the Majestic, who was killed early in the Action; but the ship was continued to be so well fought by her First Lieutenant, Mr. Cuthbert, that I have given him an order to command her till your Lordship's pleasure is known.

The ships of the enemy, all but their two rear ships, are nearly dismasted: and those two, with two Frigates, I am sorry to say, made their escape; nor was it, I assure you, in my power to prevent them. Captain Hood most handsomely endeavoured to do it, but I had no ship in a condition to support the Zealous, and I was obliged to call her in.

The support and assistance I have received from Captain Berry cannot be sufficiently expressed. I was wounded in the head, and obliged to be carried off the deck; but the service suffered no loss by that event: Captain Berry was fully equal to the important service then going on, and to him I must beg leave to refer you for every information relative to this Victory. He will present you with the Flag of the Second in Command, that of the Commander-in-Chief being burnt in L'Orient.

Herewith I transmit you Lists of the Killed and Wounded, and the Lines of Battle of ourselves and the French. I have the honour to be, my Lord, your Lordship's most obedient servant,

Horatio Nelson.

**MACDONOUGH'S REPORT OF THE BATTLE OF LAKE
CHAMPLAIN ***

U. S. Ship Saratoga,

Off Plattsburg, September 11th, 1814.

Sir; The Almighty has been pleased to grant us a signal victory on Lake Champlain in the capture of

* Macdonough, *Life of Commodore Thomas Macdonough*, Boston, 1909, pp. 267-270.

one frigate, one brig and two sloops of war of the enemy.

I have the honor to be very respectfully, sir, your obt. servt.

T. Macdonough, Com'g.

Honorable W. Jones,
Secretary of the Navy.

U. S. Ship Saratoga,
Plattsburg Bay, Sept. 13th, 1814.

Sir; I have the honor to give you the particulars of the action which took place on the 11th inst. on this lake.

For several days the enemy were on their way to Plattsburg by land and water, and it being well understood that an attack would be made at the same time by their land and naval forces, I determined to await at anchor the approach of the latter.

At 8 a. m., the lookout boat announced the approach of the enemy. At 9 he anchored in a line ahead at about 300 yards distance from my line, his ship opposed to the Saratoga, his brig to the Eagle, Capt. Robt. Henley, his galleys, thirteen in number, to the schooner, sloop and a division of our galleys, one of his sloops assisting their ship and brig, the other assisting their galleys. Our remaining galleys with the Saratoga and Eagle. In this situation the whole force on both sides became engaged, the Saratoga suffering much from the heavy fire of the Confiance. I could perceive at the same time, however, that our fire was very destructive to her. The Ticonderoga, Lt. Commr. Cassin, gallantly sustained her full share of the action. At 1/2 10 the Eagle, not being able to bring her guns

to bear, cut her cable and anchored in a more eligible position between my ship and the Ticonderoga, where she very much annoyed the enemy but unfortunately leaving me exposed to a galling fire from the enemy's brig. Our guns on the starboard side being nearly all dismounted or not manageable, a stern anchor was let go, the bower cable cut and the ship winded with a fresh broadside on the enemy's ship, which soon after surrendered. Our broadside was then sprung to bear on the brig, which surrendered in about fifteen minutes after.

The sloop that was opposed to the Eagle had struck some time before and drifted down the line, the sloop which was with their galleys having struck also. Three of their galleys are said to be sunk; the others pulled off. Our galleys were about obeying with alacrity the signal to follow them when all the vessels were reported to me to be in a sinking state. It then became necessary to annul the signal to the galleys and order their men to the pumps. I could only look at the enemy's galleys going off in a shattered condition, for there was not a mast in either squadron that could stand to make sail on; the lower rigging, being nearly all shot away, hung down as though it had been just placed over the mast heads.

The Saratoga had fifty-five round shot in her hull; the Confiance one hundred and five. The enemy's shot passed principally just over our heads, as there were not 20 whole hammocks in the nettings at the close of the action which lasted, without intermission, two hours and twenty minutes.

The absence and sickness of Lt. Raymond Perry left me without the services of that excellent officer.

Much ought fairly to be attributed to him for his great care and attention in disciplining the ship's crew as her first lieutenant. His place was filled by a gallant young officer, Lt. Peter Gamble, who I regret to inform you, was killed early in the action. Acting Lt. Vallette worked the 1st and 2nd divisions of guns with able effect. Sailing Master Brum's attention to the springs and in the execution of the order to wind the ship and occasionally at the guns meets with my entire approbation; also Capt. Youngs, commanding the acting marines, who took his men to the guns. Mr. Beale, purser, was of great service at the guns and in carrying my orders throughout the ship, with Midshipman Montgomery. Master's Mate Joshua Justin had command of the 3d division. His conduct during the action was that of a brave and correct officer. Midshipmen Monteath, Graham, Williamson, Platt, Thwing, and acting Midshipman Baldwin, all behaved well and gave evidence of their making valuable officers.

The Saratoga was twice set on fire by hot shot from the enemy's ship.

I close, sir, this communication with feelings of gratitude for the able support I received from every officer and man attached to the squadron which I have the honor to command.

I have the honor to be with great respect, sir, your most obedient servant,

T. Macdonough.

Honorable Wm. Jones,
Secretary of the Navy.

P. S. Accompanying this is a list of killed and wounded, a list of prisoners, and a precise statement

of both forces engaged. Also letters from Capt. Henley and Lieut. Commr. Cassin.

T. Macdonough.

**GREENE'S REPORT OF THE ENGAGEMENT BETWEEN
THE MONITOR AND THE MERRIMAC**

U. S. Ironclad Steamer Monitor,
Hampton Roads, March 12, 1862.

Sir: Lieutenant Commanding John L. Worden having been disabled in the action of the 9th instant between this vessel and the rebel iron-clad frigate Merrimack, I submit to you the following report:

We arrived at Hampton Roads at 9 p. m. on the 8th instant and immediately received orders from Captain Marston to proceed to Newport News and protect the Minnesota from the attack of the Merrimack. Acting Master Howard came on board and volunteered to act as pilot.

We left Hampton Roads at 10 p. m. and reached the Minnesota at 11:30 p. m.

The Minnesota being aground, Captain Worden sent me on board of her to enquire if we could render her any assistance, and to state to Captain Van Brunt that we should do all in our power to protect her from the attack of the Merrimack.

I then returned to this vessel and at 1 a. m. on the 9th instant anchored near the Minnesota. At 4 a. m., supposing the Minnesota to be afloat and coming down upon us, got underway and stood out of the channel. Finding that we were mistaken, anchored at 5:30 a. m. At 8 a. m. perceived the Merrimack underway and standing toward the Minnesota. Hove up the anchor and went to quarters. At 8:45 a. m. we opened fire

upon the Merrimack and continued the action until 11:30 a. m., when Captain Worden was injured in the eyes by the explosion of a shell from the Merrimack from the outside of the eyehole in the pilot house, exactly opposite his eye. Captain Worden then sent for me and told me to take charge of the vessel. We continued the action until 12:15 p. m., when the Merrimack retreated to Sewell's Point and we went to the Minnesota and remained by her until she was afloat.

I am, sir, very respectfully, your obedient servant,

S. D. Greene,

Lieutenant and Ordnance Officer.

Hon. Gideon Welles,

Secretary of the Navy, Washington, D. C.

FARRAGUT'S REPORT OF THE BATTLE OF MOBILE BAY

No. 335.

Flagship Hartford, .

Mobile Bay, August 5, 1864.

Sir: I have the honor to report to the Department that this morning I entered Mobile Bay, passing between Forts Morgan and Gaines, and encountering the rebel ram Tennessee and the gun-boats of the enemy; viz., Selma, Morgan, and Gaines.

The attacking fleet was underway by 5:45 a. m., in the following order:

Brooklyn with the Octorara on her port side, Hartford with the Metacomet, Richmond with the Port Royal, Lackawanna with the Seminole, Monongahela with the Kennebec, Ossipee with the Itasca, and Oneida with the Galena.

On the starboard of the fleet was proper position of monitors or ironclads.

The wind was light from the southward and westward; the sky cloudy with very little sun.

Fort Morgan opened upon us at six minutes past 7, and soon after this the action became lively. As we steamed up the Main Ship Channel there was some difficulty ahead and the Hartford passed on ahead of the Brooklyn. At forty minutes past 7 the monitor Tecumseh was struck by a torpedo and sank, going down very rapidly and carrying with her all of her officers and crew with the exception of the pilot and 8 or 10 men, who were saved by a boat that I sent from the Metacomet alongside of me.

The Hartford had passed the forts before 8 o'clock, and finding myself raked by the rebel gunboats, I ordered the Metacomet to cast off and go in pursuit of them, one of which, the Selma, she succeeded in capturing.

All the vessels had passed the forts by 8:30 o'clock, but the rebel ram Tennessee was still apparently uninjured in our rear.

Signal was at once made to all the fleet to turn again and attack the ram, not only with the guns, but with orders to run her down at full speed. The Monongahela was the first that struck her, and though she may have injured her badly, yet did not succeed in disabling her. The Lackawanna also struck her, but ineffectually, and the flagship gave her a severe shock with her bow, and as she passed poured her whole port broadside into her, solid IX-inch shot and 13 pounds of powder, at a distance of not more than 12 feet. The ironclads were closing upon her and the Hartford and the rest of the fleet were bearing down upon her when, at 10 a. m., she surrendered. The rest of the rebel

fleet, viz., Morgan and Gaines, succeeded in getting back under the protection of the guns of Fort Morgan.

This terminated the action of the day.

Admiral Buchanan sent me his sword, being himself badly wounded with a compound fracture of the leg, which it is supposed will have to be amputated.

Having had many of my own men wounded and the surgeon of the ram Tennessee being very desirous to have Admiral Buchanan removed to a hospital, I sent a flag of truce to the commanding officer of Fort Morgan, Brigadier General Richard L. Page, to say that if he would allow the wounded of the fleet as well as their own to be taken to Pensacola, where they could be better cared for than here, I would send out one of our vessels, provided she would be permitted to return bringing back nothing that she did not take out. General Page assented, and the Metacomet was dispatched about o'clock.

The list of casualties on our part as far as yet ascertained are as follows:

Vessel	Killed	Wounded
Flagship Hartford	19	23
Brooklyn	9	22
Lackawanna	4	2
Oneida	7	23
Monongahela	6
Metacomet	1	2
Ossipee	1	7
Richmond	2
Galena	1

In all, 41 killed and 88 wounded.

On the rebel ram Tennessee were captured 20 officers and about 170 men. [There follows a list of the officers.]

On the Selma were taken about 90 officers and men. Of the officers I have only heard the names of two, viz., Commander Peter U. Murphey, Lieutenant and Executive Officer J. H. Comstock, who was killed.

I will send a detailed dispatch by the first opportunity. Inclosed is a list of killed and wounded on board the Hartford.

Very respectfully, your obedient servant,

D. G. Farragut,

Rear Admiral, Commanding

West Gulf Blockading Squadron.

Hon. Gideon Welles,

Secretary of the Navy, Washington, D. C.

DEWEY'S REPORT OF THE BATTLE OF MANILA BAY

U. S. Naval Force on Asiatic Station,

Flagship Olympia,

Cavite, Philippine Islands, May 4, 1898.

Sir:

I have the honor to submit the following report of the operations of the squadron under my command:

The squadron left Mirs Bay on April 27, immediately on the arrival of Mr. O. F. Williams, United States consul at Manila, who brought important information and who accompanies the squadron.

Arrived off Bolinao on the morning of April 30 and, finding no vessels there, proceeded down the coast and arrived off the entrance to Manila Bay on the same afternoon.

The Boston and Concord were sent to reconnoiter Port Subic, I having been informed that the enemy intended to take position there. A thorough search of the port was made by the Boston and Concord, but

the Spanish fleet was not found, although from a letter afterwards found in the arsenal (inclosed with translation), it appears that it had been their intention to go there.

Entered the Boca Grande, or south channel, at 11.30 p. m., steaming in column at distance at 8 knots. After half the squadron had passed, a battery on the south side of the channel opened fire, none of the shots taking effect. The Boston and McCulloch returned fire.

The squadron proceeded across the bay at slow speed, and arrived off Manila at daybreak, and was fired upon at 5.15 a. m. by three batteries at Manila and two at Cavite and by the Spanish fleet anchored in an approximately east and west line across the mouth of Bakor Bay, with their left in shoal water in Canacao Bay.

The squadron then proceeded to the attack, the flagship Olympia, under my personal direction, leading, followed at distance by the Baltimore, Raleigh, Petrel, Concord, and Boston, in the order named, which formation was maintained throughout the action. The squadron opened fire at 5.41 a. m. While advancing to the attack, two mines were exploded ahead of the flagship, too far to be effective.

The squadron maintained a continuous and precise fire at ranges varying from 5000 to 2000 yards, countermarching in a line approximately parallel to that of the Spanish fleet. The enemy's fire was vigorous, but generally ineffective.

Early in the engagement two launches put out toward the Olympia with the apparent intention of using torpedoes. One was sunk and the other disabled by our fire and beached before an opportunity occurred to

fire torpedoes. At 7 a. m. the Spanish flagship *Reina Cristina* made a desperate attempt to leave the line and come out to engage at short range, but was received with such galling fire, the entire battery of the *Olympia* being concentrated upon her, that she was barely able to return to the shelter of the point. The fires started in her by our shell at this time were not extinguished until she sank.

At 7.35 a. m., it having been erroneously reported to me that only 15 pounds per gun remained for the 5-inch rapidfire battery, I ceased firing and withdrew the squadron for consultation and a redistribution of ammunition, if necessary.

The three batteries at Manila had kept up a continuous fire from the beginning of the engagement, which fire was not returned by this squadron. The first of these batteries was situated on the south mole head at the entrance to the Pasig River, the second on the south bastion of the walled city of Manila, and the third at Malate, about one-half mile farther south. At this point I sent a message to the Governor-General to the effect that if the batteries did not cease firing the city would be shelled. This had the effect of silencing them.

At 11.16 a. m., finding that the report of scarcity of ammunition was incorrect, I returned with the squadron to the attack. By this time the flagship and almost the entire Spanish fleet were in flames, and at 12.30 p. m. the squadron ceased firing, the batteries being silenced and the ships sunk, burnt, and deserted.

At 12.40 p. m. the squadron returned and anchored off Manila, the *Petrel* being left behind to complete the destruction of the smaller gunboats, which were

behind the point of Cavite. This duty was performed by Commander E. P. Wood in the most expeditious and complete manner possible.

The Spanish fleet lost the following vessels:

Sunk—Reina Cristina, Castilla, Don Antonio de Ulloa.

Burnt—Don Juan de Austria, Isla de Luzon, Isla de Cuba, General Lezo, Marques del Duero, El Correo, Velasco, and Isla de Mindanao (transport).

Captured—Rapido and Hercules (tugs) and several small launches.

I am unable to obtain complete accounts of the enemy's killed and wounded, but believe their loss to be very heavy. The Reina Cristina alone had 150 killed, including the captain, and 90 wounded.

I am happy to report that the damage done to the squadron under my command was inconsiderable. There were none killed, and only seven men in the squadron slightly wounded. As will be seen by the reports of the commanding officers which are herewith inclosed, several of the vessels were struck and even penetrated, but the damage was of the slightest, and the squadron is in as good condition now as before the battle.

I beg to state to the Department that I doubt if any commander-in-chief, under similar circumstances, was ever served by more loyal, efficient, and gallant captains than those of the squadron now under my command. Captain Frank Wildes, commanding the Boston, volunteered to remain in command of his vessel, although his relief arrived before leaving Hongkong. Assistant Surgeon C. P. Kindleberger, of the Olympia, and Gunner J. C. Evans, of the Boston, also volun-

teered to remain after orders detaching them had arrived.

The conduct of my personal staff was excellent. Commander B. P. Lamberton, chief of staff, was a volunteer for that position and gave me most efficient aid. Lieutenant T. M. Brumby, flag lieutenant, and Ensign W. P. Scott, aid, performed their duties as signal officers in a highly creditable manner. The Olympia being short of officers for the battery, Ensign H. H. Caldwell, flag secretary, volunteered for and was assigned to a subdivision of the 5-inch battery. Mr. J. L. Stickney, formerly an officer in the United States Navy, and now correspondent for the New York *Herald*, volunteered for duty as my aid, and rendered valuable service.

While leaving to the commanding officers to comment on the conduct of the officers and men under their commands, I desire especially to mention the coolness of Lieutenant C. G. Calkins, the navigator of the Olympia, who came under my personal observation, being on the bridge with me throughout the entire action, and giving the ranges to the guns with an accuracy that was proven by the excellence of the firing.

On May 2, the day following the engagement, the squadron again went to Cavite, where it remains. A landing party was sent to destroy the guns and magazines of the batteries there. The first battery, near the end of Sangley Point, was composed of two modern Trubia B. L. rifles of 15 centimeters caliber. The second was one mile farther down the beach, and consisted of a modern Canet 12-centimeter B. L. rifle behind improvised earthworks.

On the 3d the military forces evacuated the Cavite arsenal; which was taken possession of by a landing party. On the same day the Raleigh and Baltimore secured the surrender of the batteries on Corregidor Island, paroling the garrison and destroying the guns.

On the morning of May 4, the transport Manila, which had been aground in Bakor Bay, was towed off and made a prize.

Very respectfully, your obedient servant,
George Dewey,
Commodore, U. S. Navy,
Commanding U. S. Naval Force
on Asiatic Station.

The Secretary of the Navy.
Washington, D. C.

**GLOSSOP'S REPORT OF THE DESTRUCTION OF
THE EMDEN**

H. M. A. S. Sydney, at Colombo,
November 15, 1914.

Sir: I have the honor to report that while on escort duty with the convoy under the charge of Captain Silver, H. M. A. S. Melbourne, at 6.30 a. m., on Monday, November 9, a wireless message from Cocos was heard reporting that a foreign warship was off the entrance. I was ordered to raise steam for full speed at 7 a. m., and proceeded thither. I worked up to 20 knots, and at 9.15 a. m. sighted land ahead and almost immediately the smoke of a ship which proved to be H. I. G. M. S. Emden, coming out toward me at a great speed. At 9.40 a. m. fire was opened, she firing the first shot. I kept my distance as much as possible to obtain the advantage of my guns. Her fire was very

accurate and rapid to begin with, but seemed to slacken very quickly, all casualties occurring in this ship almost immediately. First the foremost funnel of her went, secondly the foremast and she was badly on fire aft; then the second funnel went and lastly the third funnel, and I saw she was making for the beach on North Keeling Island, where she grounded at 11.20 a. m. I gave her two more broadsides and left her to pursue a merchant ship which had come up during the action.

2. Although I had guns on this merchant ship at odd times during the action I had not fired, and as she was making off fast, I pursued and overtook her at 12.10, firing a gun across her bows, and hoisting international code signal to stop, which she did. I sent an armed boat and found her to be the S. S. Buresk, a captured British collier, with 18 Chinese crew, 1 English steward, 1 Norwegian cook and a German prize crew of 3 officers, 1 warrant officer and 12 men. The ship, unfortunately, was sinking, the Kingston knocked out and damaged to prevent repairing, so I took all on board, fired 4 shots into her, and returned to the Emden, passing men swimming in the water, for whom I left two boats I was towing from Buresk.

3. On arriving again off Emden she still had her colors up at mainmast head. I inquired by signal, international code, "Will you surrender?" and received a reply in Morse "What signal? No signal books." I then made in Morse, "Do you surrender?" and subsequently "Have you received my signal?" to neither of which did I get an answer. The German officers on board gave me to understand that the captain would never surrender, and therefore, though very reluctantly, I again fired at her at 4.30 p. m., ceasing at 4.35,

as she showed white flags and hauled down her ensign by sending a man aloft.

4. I then left the Emden and returned and picked up the Buresk's two boats, rescuing two sailors (5.0 p. m.), who had been in the water all day. I returned and sent in one boat to Emden, manned by her own prize crew from Buresk and one officer, and stating I would return to their assistance next morning.

5. I lay on and off all night and communicated with Direction Island at 8.0 a. m., November 10, to find that the Emden's party, consisting of 3 officers and 40 men, 1 launch and 2 cutters, had seized and provisioned a 70-ton schooner (the Ayesha), having 4 Maxims with 2 belts to each. They left the previous night at six o'clock. The wireless station was entirely destroyed, 1 cable cut, 1 damaged, and 1 intact. I borrowed a doctor and two assistants and proceeded as fast as possible to Emden's assistance.

6. I sent an officer on board to see the captain, and in view of the large number of prisoners and wounded and lack of accommodation, etc., in this ship, and the absolute impossibility of leaving them where they were, he agreed that if I would receive his officers and men and all wounded, "then as for such time as they remained in Sydney they would cause no interference with ship or fittings, and would be amenable to the ship's discipline." I, therefore, set to work at once to tranship them—a most difficult operation, the ship being on weather side of island and the send alongside very heavy. The conditions in the Emden were indescribable. I received the last from her at 5.0 p. m., then

had to go round to the lee side to pick up 20 more men who had managed to get ashore from the ship.

7. Darkness came on before this could be accomplished, and the ship again stood off and on all night, resuming operations at 5 a. m. on the 11th of November, a cutter's crew having to land with stretchers to bring wounded round to embarking point. A German officer, a doctor, died ashore the previous day. The ship in the meantime ran over to Direction Island to return their doctor and assistants, send cables, and was back again at 10 a. m., embarked the remainder of wounded, and proceeded for Colombo by 10.35 a. m. Wednesday, the 11th of November.

8. Total casualties in Sydney: Killed 3, severely wounded (since dead) 1, severely wounded 4, wounded 4, slightly wounded 4. In the Emden I can only approximately state the killed at 7 officers and 108 men from captain's statement. I had on board 11 officers, 9 warrant officers, and 191 men, of whom 3 officers and 53 men were wounded, and of this number 1 officer and 3 men have since died of wounds.

9. The damage to Sydney's hull and fittings was surprisingly small; in all about 10 hits seem to have been made. The engine and boiler rooms and funnels escaped entirely.

13. I have great pleasure in stating that the behavior of the ship's company was excellent in every way, and with such a large proportion of young hands and people under training it is all the more gratifying. I have the honor to be, Sir, your obedient Servant,

John C. T. Glossop, Captain.

The Secretary, Admiralty

STURDEE'S REPORT OF THE BATTLE OFF THE FALKLAND ISLANDS

Invincible at Sea, December 19, 1914.

Sir: I have the honor to forward a report on the action which took place on December 8, 1914, against a German squadron off the Falkland Islands. I have the honor to be, Sir, your obedient servant,

F. C. D. Sturdee,

Vice Admiral, Commander-in-Chief.

The Secretary, Admiralty.

A. Preliminary Movements

[The report begins with a list of ships and their positions when smoke of the German squadron was sighted.]

At 9.20 a. m. the two leading ships of the enemy (Gneisenau and Nürnberg), with guns trained on the wireless station, came within range of the Canopus, who opened fire at them across the low land at a range of 11,000 yards. The enemy at once hoisted their colors and turned away. At this time the masts and smoke of the enemy were visible from the upper bridge of the Invincible at a range of approximately 17,000 yards across the low land to the south of Port William.

A few minutes later the two cruisers altered course to port, as though to close the Kent at the entrance to the harbor, but about this time it seems that the Invincible and Inflexible were seen over the land, as the enemy at once altered course and increased speed to join their consorts.

The Glasgow weighed and proceeded at 9.40 a. m. with orders to join the Kent and observe the enemy's movements.

At 9.45 a. m. the squadron—less the Bristol—weighed, and proceeded out of harbor in the following order: Carnarvon, Inflexible, Invincible, and Cornwall. On passing Cape Pembroke Light the five ships of the enemy appeared clearly in sight to the southeast, hull down. The visibility was at its maximum, the sea was calm, with a bright sun, a clear sky, and a light breeze from the northwest.

At 10.20 a. m. the signal for a general chase was made. The battle cruisers quickly passed ahead of the Carnarvon and overtook the Kent. The Glasgow was ordered to keep two miles from the Invincible, and the Inflexible was stationed on the starboard quarter of the flagship. Speed was eased to 20 knots at 11.15 a. m. to enable the other cruisers to get into station.

At this time the enemy's funnels and bridges showed just above the horizon.

Information was received from the Bristol at 11.27 a. m. that three enemy ships had appeared off Port Pleasant, probably colliers or transports. The Bristol was therefore directed to take the Macedonia under his orders and destroy transports.

The enemy were still maintaining their distance, and I decided, at 12.20 p. m., to attack with the two battle cruisers and the Glasgow.

At 12.47 p. m. the signal to "Open fire and engage the enemy" was made.

The Inflexible opened fire at 12.55 p. m. from her fore turret at the right-hand ship of the enemy, a light cruiser; a few minutes later the Invincible opened fire at the same ship.

The deliberate fire from a range of 16,500 to 15,000 yards at the right-hand light cruiser, who was dropping

astern, became too threatening, and when a shell fell close alongside her at 1.20 p. m. she (the Leipzig) turned away, with the Nürnberg and Dresden to the southwest. These light cruisers were at once followed by the Kent, Glasgow, and Cornwall, in accordance with my instructions.

The action finally developed into three separate encounters, besides the subsidiary one dealing with the threatened landing.

B. Action with the Armored Cruisers

The fire of the battle cruisers was directed on the Scharnhorst and Gneisenau. The effect of this was quickly seen, when at 1.25 p. m., with the Scharnhorst leading, they turned about seven points to port in succession into line ahead, and opened fire at 1.30 p. m. Shortly afterwards speed was eased to 24 knots, and the battle cruisers were ordered to turn together, bringing them into line ahead, with the Invincible leading.

The range was about 13,500 yards at the final turn, and increased until at 2 p. m. it had reached 16,450 yards.

The enemy then (2.10 p. m.) turned away about 10 points to starboard, and a second chase ensued, until at 2.45 p. m. the battle cruisers again opened fire; this caused the enemy at 2.53 p. m. to turn into line ahead to port and open fire at 2.55 p. m.

The Scharnhorst caught fire forward, but not seriously, and her fire slackened perceptibly; the Gneisenau was badly hit by the Inflexible.

At 3.30 p. m. the Scharnhorst led round about 10 points to starboard; just previously her fire had slack-

ened perceptibly, and one shell had shot away her third funnel ; some guns were not firing, and it would appear that the turn was dictated by a desire to bring her starboard guns into action. The effect of the fire on the Scharnhorst became more and more apparent in consequence of smoke from fires, and also escaping steam ; at times a shell would cause a large hole to appear in her side, through which could be seen a dull red glow of flame. At 4.04 p. m. the Scharnhorst, whose flag remained flying to the last, suddenly listed heavily to port, and within a minute it became clear that she was a doomed ship ; for the list increased very rapidly until she lay on her beam ends, and at 4.17 p. m. she disappeared.

The Gneisenau passed on the far side of her late flagship, and continued a determined but ineffectual effort to fight the two battle cruisers.

At 5.08 p. m. the forward funnel was knock'd over and remained resting against the second funnel. She was evidently in serious straits, and her fire slackened very much.

At 5.15 p. m. one of the Gneisenau's shells struck the Invincible ; this was her last effective effort.

At 5.30 p. m. she turned towards the flagship with a heavy list to starboard, and appeared stopped, with steam pouring from her escape pipes and smoke from shell and fires rising everywhere. About this time I ordered the signal "Cease fire," but before it was hoisted the Gneisenau opened fire again, and continued to fire from time to time with a single gun.

At 5.40 p. m. the three ships closed in on the Gneisenau, and at this time the flag flying at her fore

truck was apparently hauled down, but the flag at the peak continued flying.

At 5.50 p. m., "Cease fire" was made.

At 6 p. m. the Gneisenau heeled over very suddenly, showing the men gathered on her decks and then walking on her side as she lay for a minute on her beam ends before sinking.

The prisoners of war from the Gneisenau report that by the time the ammunition was expended, some 600 men had been killed and wounded. The surviving officers and men were all ordered on deck and told to provide themselves with hammocks and any articles that could support them in the water.

When the ship capsized and sank there were probably some 200 unwounded survivors in the water, but, owing to the shock of the cold water, many were drowned within sight of the boats and ship.

Every effort was made to save life as quickly as possible, both by boats and from the ships; life buoys were thrown and ropes lowered, but only a portion could be rescued. The Invincible alone rescued 108 men, 14 of whom were found to be dead after being brought on board; these men were buried at sea the following day with full military honors.

C. Action with the Light Cruisers

At about 1.00 p. m., when the Scharnhorst and Gneisenau turned to port to engage the Invincible and Inflexible, the enemy's light cruisers turned to starboard to escape; the Dresden was leading, and the Nürnberg and Leipzig followed on each quarter.

In accordance with my instructions, the Glasgow, Kent, and Cornwall at once went in chase of these

ships; the Carnarvon, whose speed was insufficient to overtake them, closed the battle cruisers.

The Glasgow drew well ahead of the Cornwall and Kent, and, at 3.00 p. m., shots were exchanged with the Leipzig at 12,000 yards. The Glasgow's object was to endeavor to outrange the Leipzig with her 6-inch guns, and thus cause her to alter course and give the Cornwall and Kent a chance of coming into action.

At 4.17 p. m. the Cornwall opened fire, also on the Leipzig.

At 7.17 p. m. the Leipzig was on fire fore and aft, and the Cornwall and Glasgow ceased fire.

The Leipzig turned over on her port side and disappeared at 9 p. m. Seven officers and 11 men were saved.

At 3.38 p. m. the Cornwall ordered the Kent to engage the Nürnberg, the nearest cruiser to her.

Owing to the excellent and strenuous efforts of the engine room department, the Kent was able to get within range of the Nürnberg at 5.00 p. m. At 6.35 p. m. the Nürnberg was on fire forward and ceased firing. The Kent also ceased firing, and closed to 3300 yards; as the colors were still observed to be flying in the Nürnberg, the Kent opened fire again. Fire was finally stopped five minutes later on the colors being hauled down, and every preparation was made to save life. The Nürnberg sank at 7.27 p. m., and, as she sank, a group of men were waving a German ensign attached to a staff. Twelve men were rescued, but only seven survived.

The Kent had four killed and 12 wounded, mostly caused by one shell.

During the time the three cruisers were engaged with the Nürnberg and Leipzig, the Dresden, who was beyond her consorts, effected her escape owing to her superior speed. The Glasgow was the only cruiser with sufficient speed to have had any chance of success. However, she was fully employed in engaging the Leipzig for over an hour before either the Cornwall or Kent could come up and get within range. During this time the Dresden was able to increase her distance and get out of sight.

The weather changed after 4 p. m., and the visibility was much reduced; further, the sky was overcast and cloudy, thus assisting the Dresden to get away unobserved.

D. Action with the Enemy's Transports

A report was received at 11.27 a. m. from his Majesty's ship Bristol that three ships of the enemy, probably transports or colliers, had appeared off Port Pleasant. The Bristol was ordered to take the Macedonia under his orders and destroy the transports.

His Majesty's ship Macedonia reports that only two ships, steamships Baden and Santa Isabel, were present; both ships were sunk after the removal of the crew.

I have pleasure in reporting that the officers and men under my orders carried out their duties with admirable efficiency and coolness, and great credit is due to the engineer officers of all the ships, several of which exceeded their normal full speed.

F. C. D. Sturdee.

**REPORT OF THE CAPTURE OF THE U-58 BY THE
FANNING**

Confidential

128-3-17/B.

U. S. S. Fanning,
18 November, 1917.

From: Commanding Officer.

To: The Commander, U. S. Naval Forces in European waters.

Subject: Engagement with, and destruction of, S. M. U-58, 17 November, 1917.

Inclosure: (a) Report of Executive Officer, Lt. . . . ,
U. S. N.(b) Plan showing relative positions of
convoy, destroyers, and submarines.

1. At about 4.10 p. m., November 17, 1917, while escorting convoy, a finger periscope about 1½" in diameter and 1 foot above water was sighted 3 points on port bow, distance about 400 yards, and heading across the bow at about 2 knots.

2. The Fanning was swinging with left rudder, speed about 15 knots, into position covering left rear flank of convoy, about 1000 yards from same. The Nicholson was on starboard bow standing down from ahead.

3. Rudder was put hard left and speed increased to 20 knots working up rapidly to full power. The periscope disappeared and when ship had turned about 30 degrees the rudder was righted to bring ship in position for dropping depth charge, which was dropped at about 4.15 p. m., slightly ahead of estimated position of submarine. The ship then continued to turn with full left rudder.

4. Nicholson changed course to right, turned, and headed for spot where depth charge had been dropped, and at about the time her turn was completed the conning tower of submarine came to surface between this ship and convoy, and about 500 yards from spot where charge had been dropped, in a direction toward convoy. Nicholson headed for submarine at full speed, and Fanning turned into her (Nicholson's) wake to attack. Nicholson dropped depth charge alongside submarine and turned to left, firing three shots from her stern gun while turning. The bow of submarine then came up rapidly, and it was estimated she was down by the stern at an angle of about 30 degrees, and was apparently making about two knots. She righted herself, and seemed to increase speed to about five knots, somewhat down by the head. As Nicholson cleared, Fanning headed for submarine and opened fire with bow gun, firing three shots. (The Commanding Officer of submarine later stated that no gun hits were made.) After the third shot, the crew of submarine all came on deck and held up their hands, and submarine surrendered at 4.28 p. m.

5. Fanning and Nicholson circled, keeping batteries trained on submarine. After circling twice Fanning on orders from Nicholson went alongside at 4.32 p. m., to pick up prisoners; Nicholson covering. A line was gotten to submarine, but apparently at this time she was scuttled, as two of her crew were seen to disappear below through conning tower hatch, remaining below for about one minute; until this time the crew had made no effort to leave her deck. At 4.36 p. m. she sank, line was let go, and crew of submarine jumped into water and swam to Fanning. They were taken

on board, heaving lines being used to assist in rescue, and all were on board at 4.45 p. m. One of the submarine died on board Fanning, having been hauled out of water, and efforts to resuscitate having failed. All officers and the remainder of crew, except one man, were picked up, and made prisoners of war. The Commanding Officer of submarine surrendered to the Commanding Officer of Fanning, and gave parole for his officers while on board Fanning. The crew was placed on main deck aft under guard, and searched; officers were also searched before they gave their parole. It is believed that the remaining member of the crew jumped overboard before Fanning went alongside, and was picked up by Nicholson.

6. From notebooks taken, life belt picked up, and statements of crew, the submarine was S. M. U-58, which had been six days at sea.

7. The Commanding Officer and officers of U-58 informed Commanding Officer of Fanning that the first depth charge (the one dropped by Fanning) damaged his ship seriously, forcing him to come to surface, and that the second depth charge (the one dropped by Nicholson) additionally damaged him. Later information from officers and crew of U-58 developed the fact that the depth charge dropped by Fanning wrecked the motors, diving gear, and oil leads. She then sank to a depth of about two hundred feet and was entirely unmanageable. She blew tanks and was coming to surface in a helpless and unmanageable condition, when Nicholson dropped depth charge. The officers reported that inner hull of submarine was intact, but that she was wrecked and helpless as stated above.

8. No damage to submarine could be seen from Fanning, other than apparent breakage of false work abaft conning tower on port side. When on surface submarine was decidedly down by the head, her stern torpedo tubes showing.

9. The submarine was painted light grey, black water-line about two feet broad with white band underneath. No number or other distinguishing marks showed. Decking was of wood, and submarine coincided in all particulars with plate shown in C. B. 1182 C of U-53 to 62 class, with following exceptions:

(a) One gun forward of conning tower: 4.1". Two guns abaft conning tower: one anti-air craft, and one 22-pounder.

(b) Abaft conning tower, she was lower than fore-castle and stern, giving a well deck, but with no break, well being formed by an easy curve.

(c) There was no periscope showing, and it could not be determined whether they were housed or broken off.

10. While prisoners were being taken on board, Chief Pharmacist's Mate, U. S. N., and Coxswain, N. N. V., jumped overboard in an effort to rescue a member of the crew of U-58 who was drowning. They managed to hold him up and get him on board Fanning, but efforts to resuscitate him failed, and he died in a very few minutes. The Commanding Officer considers that the action of these two men is worthy of commendation.

*

* In accordance with the rule in war-time, the name of the commanding officer is not given.

THE PROFESSIONAL ARTICLE

STEPHEN B. LUCE *

AN APPRECIATION

By REAR ADMIRAL BRADLEY A. FISKE, U. S. Navy

Some men go through life selling their services at high prices. Such men amass wealth, or achieve great rank or high position; some of these give but little service, some give practically none, and some give less than none, and do more harm than good. Most of us go through life receiving, for the moderate services which our abilities enable us to render, only moderate recompense in position, rank, or money. A few men go through life rendering service of great merit, and receive but scant return in any of the world's commodities; while a still smaller number give services of inestimable value, and not only receive a paltry return of any kind, but are misunderstood and even ridiculed, because of them, by many of their contemporaries. In this last group was Rear Admiral Luce.

A personality like that of Luce stands out with a distinctness that is almost painful against the background of ordinary men. One cannot put him into any recognized class of men, because there is no recognized class of men, distinguished by characteristics such as distinguished him.

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The statement cannot reasonably be questioned that the United States Navy owes more to him than to any other man who was ever connected with it, directly or indirectly. There have been other men to whom the navy owes its gratitude, such as Maury, Isherwood, Ericsson, John G. Walker, Mahan, Harry Taylor, and Roosevelt, when President. What we owe to each of these is clearly understood and recognized, because it was for some distinct material service; what we owe to Luce is not clearly understood, and is only imperfectly recognized, for the reason that the services which he rendered were almost wholly spiritual and mental.

Luce taught the navy to think. This does not mean that he taught engineers to think about engines, or ordnance officers to think about guns, or constructors to think about stream lines, or electricians to think about dynamos: but it does mean he taught the navy to think about the navy as a whole. He realized more clearly than any man before him, and more clearly than most men now, that a navy is no more a collection of parts than an orchestra is a collection of musicians; he saw that a navy, in order to be good, must be directed as an entirety along a preconceived and definite line of strategy, just as an orchestra must be directed as an entirety to the rendering of a preconceived and definite tune; he perceived that, no matter how perfect the separate parts of a navy or an orchestra may be, the main effort must be, first to conceive a good plan to work on, or a good tune to play, and second to secure a competent strategical direction in one case or a competent orchestra conductor in the other case, in order that the plan may be efficiently carried out, or the tune

correctly played. Luce made the navy think about these things and, finally, before his death, realize their importance to the nation.

Luce saw strategy as clearly as most of us see a material object. It first appeared to him, as he often stated, after a brief interview with General Sherman, shortly before the fall of Savannah in our Civil War. Scales seemed suddenly to fall from before his mental eyes, and he saw the problem of war almost as in a vision.

Judged by the standard of Luce's material interests, this was perhaps the most unfortunate occurrence of his life; because he became forthwith the prophet without honor in his own country. His abilities in all lines of his profession were so great, his health so good, and his personality so delightful, that his way through life might have been of the pleasantest, and blessed with occasional assignments to those positions of departmental power, culminating in chief of bureauship, which sometimes give color and splendor to the stern gray rigors of a naval life. But Luce, by his own acts, removed all possibilities of any such fine things for himself. He became the solitary propagandist of an unpopular doctrine. He undertook the task alone of bringing about what he saw must be brought about, lest the nation perish. He insistently pointed out what most officers are beginning only now to see—that the legalized administration of the Navy Department provided only the tools to work with, and did not provide for laying out the work, for doing which the tools were to be used. With pen and with spoken word, early and late, and all the time, he continued, year after year, to point out to non-receptive minds the fact so clear to

him, and to us now; that everything for naval success had been provided, except the most important thing—the basic plan.

That the bureau chiefs should not have approved of Luce's ideas we can easily understand, and without imputing undue shortsightedness or selfishness to any of them; because it is wholly natural, and in some ways proper, that a specialist should regard his own specialty as the all-important element, and should fail to see why it should be subordinated to so intangible and "theoretical" a thing as strategy. It does seem strange, however, that for more than forty years, the great body of naval officers, even of line officers, should have opposed Luce's propaganda; that the War College should have been contemned and ridiculed, and that the greatest single service ever rendered to the navy, should have been spurned with contumely. That Luce should have been pronounced unpractical at the start, is also not hard to understand; but it is hard to understand why, after the War College had been actually established, and after most of the ideas for which he had been called unpractical had been found to be wholly practical—he should still have remained unpractical, in the judgment of his contemporaries!

The establishment of the Naval War College is usually spoken of as the greatest achievement of Luce's life, and the college itself is sometimes called his monument. But was not the establishment of the college merely an incident, and is not the college itself merely a heap of stones, in comparison with the thought which Luce finally planted in the mind of the navy, and with the spirit which he put into its heart? The agency which introduced the thought was the mind of Luce,

and the agency which infused the spirit was the spirit of Luce: as between the two, the spirit was the finer.

For though few men have been endowed with such a mind as his, far fewer have been filled with such a spirit. To see clearly what he saw was the feat of a trained imagination; to make others see it, despite themselves, was the deed of a born leader of men: but to persist year after year, against opposition both active and passive, to withstand ridicule, to endure the official disapproval which is the hardest cross for a trained officer to bear, and to sacrifice the worldly rewards he could have grasped—constituted a life of persistent heroism that is almost unprecedented on so large a scale and for so long a time.

And how much more wonderful does his self-sacrifice appear, and how much more inspiring does his example become, when we realize that all he sacrificed was sacrificed uncomplainingly, unostentatiously, and it seemed almost unconsciously! There was no martyr's pose, no appeal for sympathy, no self-pity, no contempt for those who did not think as he did, no bitterness, no sarcasm, no reproaches. On the contrary, he was perfectly good natured all the time; witty allusions lightened his most convincing arguments; and a superabundant humor, that seemed to bubble up from an inexhaustible reservoir, accompanied almost every act and word and even gesture. To the joyous, buoyant Luce, in whom rollicking fun was an abiding characteristic, even in his later years, any other course of conduct would have been impossible. The man who, as captain of a ship, would "skin the cat" in his frock coat, jumping up and catching hold of two hammock hooks in his cabin; who could not be "dignified" for

any but brief periods ; who did not have to be dignified, because of the natural dignity of his mind and character to which all about him bowed in unaffected deference, who talked and acted always with the frank straightforwardness of a manly boy—such a man could no more harbor ill-will than he could harbor thoughts of undue self-aggrandizement ; could no more affect a pose than he could play politics ; could no more indulge in self-pity than he could do anything else unmanly. His sense of humor was too keen, his perception of incongruity too correct, his desires too utterly impersonal, his ambition set on purposes too high, to permit him—save for rare brief intervals—to be untrue to his own magnanimous self.

The most inspiring personality our navy ever produced has passed away, but his influence will stay with it always, beneficent but unrecognized. Even now, so subtly has his spirit been diffused, we do not realize how much we owe him ; and as time goes on, the realization will become dimmer and dimmer still. Yet, as time goes on, it will spread over wider and wider fields, and affect the conduct of increasing numbers.

Every man exerts some influence: the lives of even the humblest of us exert some pressure on the lives of others. The lives which exert the greatest influence are the lives of men who apprehend truths that other men have not apprehended, and who, by force of mind and will, and usually by self-sacrifice as well, are able finally to make others apprehend those truths, and follow the paths those truths point out.

Such a man was Luce. More clearly than any other man in American history, he saw the relations that ought to exist between the central government and its

military and naval agencies; more clearly than any other man, he saw that an army or a navy is not a class of mercenaries, hired by a government to do its fighting, but a component and important part of the government itself; more clearly than any other officer of either our army or our navy, he perceived the paramount importance of strategy; more clearly than any other naval officer in the world, he realized the necessity of studying naval war by the methods in miniature of the game board; to him, more than to any other naval officer who ever lived, are the naval officers of every nation indebted for the understanding they now have of the actual character of their profession.

Some may feel that we owe as much to Mahan as we owe to Luce. Our debt to Mahan we all admit with gratitude: but let us not forget that it was Luce who discovered Mahan, when Mahan was an obscure commander, and persuaded him to undertake the presidency of the new War Collège; that it was Luce who steered Mahan aright along the first steps in the career that was to make him famous through all the world; and that it was Luce who inspired and made possible Mahan's epochal work "The Influence of Sea Power on History."

To the Naval Institute, the memory of Luce is especially inspiring, and to the Naval Institute he did especial honor: the first article in the first number of the *Proceedings of the Institute* was written by him, and he was for eleven years its president.

Just a year ago, and for the last time, I had the honor of grasping his hand. He was past the age of four score years and eight; but the sane and active life that he had led, and the marvellous physical and

mental balance that made him what he was, showed clearly their influence then to the glance of any observant man. True, the hearing was dull, and the walk was slow, and the voice was faint: but the keen grey eye, and the quizzical smile, and the scrupulous neatness, and the erect carriage, and the searching question, and the magnificent head were present still; and they gave to his fragile form a pathetic yet grand ennoblement.

THE ARRIVAL OF THE BATTLE-CRUISER *

By COMMANDER YATES STIRLING, U. S. Navy

The Battleship

"The criterion of warship type will be found in a study of their ultimate service."

The acceptance of this maxim and its application to capital ships has committed the United States to the battleship and to the total exclusion of the battle-cruiser. No fault can be found in the maxim, but, in its application, unfortunately economic considerations have forced the United States Navy to adhere to the pure type in which guns, armor, and speed are maintained in proportionate quantities.

"The ultimate test of war is battle. In a fleet action gun power and armor protection are the crowning attributes."

Again the maxim is sound, but have we correctly applied it?

History has shown that in all wars one side will take the initiative and act on the offensive, while the other

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will surrender the initiative and act upon the defensive. The nation acting upon the offensive does so because it feels itself the stronger. Its fleet, by virtue of its superior strength in type, in material, and in morale, will attempt to bring the other fleet to action. The other fleet, the defensive one, will await the attack of its enemy within its own waters and probably behind its own fortifications. This is the condition now existing in the great war in Europe. England, with the stronger fleet, has taken the offensive against the weaker German fleet, which lies within the safety of its strongly fortified harbors of Cuxhaven and Kiel.

In the application of these two maxims of "ultimate service," there lies the germ of misunderstanding. The idea that the enemy fleet would immediately operate to bring our fleet to action is in itself sound, but have the methods of accomplishment been correctly determined? Once the idea of a decisive battle is considered, attention at once focuses upon being strong at the point of attack, and this naturally, if illogically, leads to the decision for battleships, yet in the last analysis the "point of attack," to be strong, requires more than battleships; it requires all types for offence and defence.

The Battle-Cruiser

By virtue of gun power and speed the battle-cruiser is capable of repulsing a supported destroyer attack launched by an enemy upon our main fleet, and supporting a similar attack upon an enemy fleet. These selfsame offensive characteristics give the battle-cruiser the power to drive home a reconnaissance in force upon the enemy's fleet for the purpose of ascertaining numbers and disposition—information eagerly desired by

a commander-in-chief in the preparation of his battle plan. Now for the "ultimate service": When the battle-cruiser swings into the battle line it finds itself inferior in armor protection. It is a "thin spot" in the fleet's armored sides.

It is evident that a decision for or against battle-cruisers must be reached after a careful weighing of the relative importance of the offensive service on the one hand and the defensive service on the other. The cost of battleship and battle-cruiser is the same. The United States, basing the decision upon "ultimate service," the defensive one, chose only battleships. Is this decision sound? It may be sound from the standpoint of battle alone, if battle can be considered separate and apart from all the operations leading up to it, but can battle be so considered? The fight in the North Sea recently between the battle-cruisers throws grave doubts upon the traditional belief.

Commerce a Controlling Factor in War

A nation that lives by the sea must be capable of protecting its commerce in all parts of the world. By reason of her instant initiative upon the outbreak of war England has cleared the sea of all German commerce destroyers. The British cruisers are patrolling the trade routes along which the Empire's mighty merchant fleet comes and goes, carrying food and raw stuffs to England and from England the finished products of her great industrial activities, while Germany's commerce has been swept from the seas; her large fleet of merchant ships have either been captured, sunk, or lie interned in neutral ports. The Allies have drawn the net so close that even neutrals, with cargoes of food-stuffs bound to neutral ports bordering on

Germany, are held up on the high seas and diverted to ports of the Allies.

For the destruction of the enemy's commerce two types of warships only are needed—the battle-cruiser and the fast scout. The knell of the armored cruiser has been struck in the advent of the battle-cruiser. England is the traditional mistress of the sea. In order to have maintained her supremacy for the last few centuries it was necessary that she be always alive to the requirements of the age and lead in the development of warship types. Carrying out this traditional policy England foresaw the need of a superiority of battle-cruisers and scouts in her fleet.

[Tables follow, showing the strength of England and of Germany in battle-cruisers and scout-cruisers.]

In the present war England's ten battle-cruisers have nullified the effectiveness of the six battle-cruisers of Germany. By what seems to us a strategical error in the beginning of the war the German battle-cruiser Goeben was forced to seek shelter in Turkey, thereby reducing the German battle-cruisers available in the North Sea to five.

Germany was influenced by the maxim of "ultimate service."

It is not generally known that in the German Navy there have been two admirals in the confidence of the Emperor with diametrically opposite views upon naval strategical requirements. One of these admirals several years ago went to his Emperor and laid before him a building plan in which no battleships appeared. There were but four types of ships advocated, the battle-cruiser, the scout-cruiser, the destroyer, and the submarine. This recommendation was so radical that

the Emperor referred it to the head of the Navy Bureau. The result was the retirement from sea service of the admiral who had advocated scrapping the battleship. Germany yet clung to the maxim of "ultimate service."

If, at this time, the German Emperor had taken the advice of this far-seeing naval officer and if, at the beginning of this war, Germany had been able to have in service 12 battle-cruisers instead of six, how would this have influenced the outcome on the sea?

The Battle-Cruiser and the Submarine

Before the development of the submarine the battle-cruiser could be blockaded by battleships, or prevented from regaining its fortified base to refuel and refit. The far-reaching effectiveness of the submarine of 20 knots surface speed, which has now appeared, makes this use of the battleship extremely hazardous if not quite impossible.

The submarine can project the fortifications of the base far out to sea. The battle-cruiser reaches the high sea and returns to the base at high speed, guarded, en route, by submarines. Would the enemy endeavor to intercept, even with its superiority in battleships?

The submarine strength of England and Germany is here given:

ENGLAND

Tonnage	Number	Speed		Torpedoes
		Surface	Submerged	
200-300	8	11	7	4
300-400	47	13	9	5
400-600	8	16	10	6
Above 600	18	16	10	8
—				
81				

GERMANY

Tonnage	Number	Speed		Torpedoes
		Surface	Submerged	
200-300	18	12	8	4
300-500	2	14	8	6
500-800	4	14	9	8
Above 800	12	18	10	8
		—		
		36		

The Historical Lesson

The fight in the North Sea, where five battle-cruisers of England engaged three battle-cruisers of Germany (for the Bluecher was not a battle-cruiser but only an armored cruiser of a more advanced type), is too fresh in the minds of the public to forget that the German sailor knows how to shoot accurately and, furthermore, knows how to use scientifically every type of vessel. It will be remembered that the British battle-cruisers were hard hit and that they turned and sped away when they found they had ventured among waters newly sown with mines and infested with submarines.

If Germany then had twelve battle-cruisers at the beginning of the war, would a different story of the war now be told? Supplied and stocked with fuel and stores for a month, with arrangements for coaling at sea made by that wonderful organization, the German General Staff, so successfully carried out for the squadron of Admiral Von Spee in the Pacific, these twelve battle-cruisers, accompanied by the German scouts, could have left their naval bases and, guarded by submarines through the narrow waters of the North Sea, thereby preventing a concentration of the slow British

battleships, could have debouched into the Atlantic and preyed at will upon England's mighty merchant fleet. This fast and powerful force could have brought to action the far-flown but slow cruisers of England that had been left to guard the trade routes. What would have been England's answer? Would she have dispatched her own battle-cruiser squadron of ten ships to fight the German twelve?

This is the naval lesson of the war that the United States should profit by. The dreadnought battleship has passed away. Its slow speed has made it only a fortification which must of necessity, by its very name, remain on the defensive and at home. The battle-cruiser is the mistress of the sea and he who commands the most powerful fleet of battle-cruisers commands the sea.

THE SPEECH

THE PURITAN PRINCIPLE: LIBERTY UNDER THE LAW *

Speech of George William Curtis at the 71st anniversary banquet of the New England Society in the City of New York, December 22, 1876. The toast assigned to him was "Forefathers' Day—we best celebrate the day by imitating the virtues of the men who made it glorious." The significance of this speech lies in the fact that it was delivered at the moment when the Hayes-Tilden controversy had reached such a pitch that people spoke freely of another civil war. The speech was a great force in preparing the way for a peaceful solution of the difficulty.

Mr. President and Gentlemen of the New England Society: It was Isaac Walton, in his *Angler*, who said that Dr. Botelier was accustomed to remark "that doubtless God might have made a better berry than the strawberry, but doubtless he never did." And I suppose I speak the secret feeling of this festive company when I say that doubtless there might have been a better place to be born in than New England, but doubtless no such place exists. And if any sceptic should reply that our very presence here would seem to indicate that doubtless, also, New England is as good a place to leave as to stay in, I should reply to him that, on the contrary, our presence is but an added glory of our mother. It is an illustration of the devout missionary spirit, of the willingness in which she has

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trained us to share with others the blessings that we have received, and to circle the continent, to girdle the globe, with the strength of New England character and the purity of New England principles. Even the Knickerbockers, Mr. President—in whose stately and splendid city we are at this moment assembled, and assembled of right because it is our home—even they would doubtless concede that much of the state and splendor of this city is due to the enterprise, the industry, and the genius of those whom their first historian describes as “losel Yankees.” Sir, they grace our feast with their presence; they will enliven it, I am sure, with their eloquence and wit. Our tables are rich with the flowers grown in their soil; but there is one flower that we do not see, one flower whose perfume fills a continent, which has blossomed for more than two centuries and a half with ever-increasing and deepening beauty—a flower which blooms at this moment, on this wintry night, in never-fading freshness in a million of true hearts, from the snow-clad Katahdin to the warm Golden Gate of the South Sea, and over its waters to the isles of the East and the land of Prester John—the flower of flowers, the Pilgrim’s Mayflower.

Well, sir, holding that flower in my hand at this moment, I say that the day we celebrate commemorates the introduction upon this continent of the master principle of its civilization. I do not forget that we are a nation of many nationalities. I do not forget that there are gentlemen at this board who wear the flower of other nations close upon their hearts. I remember the forget-me-nots of Germany, and I know that the race which keeps “watch upon the Rhine” keeps watch

also upon the Mississippi and the Lakes. I recall—how could I forget?—the delicate shamrock; for

“ There came to this beach a poor exile of Erin,”
and on this beach, with his native modesty

“ He still sings his bold anthem of Erin-go-Bragh.”

I remember surely, sir, the lily—too often the tiger-lily—of France and the thistle of Scotland; I recall the daisy and the rose of England; and, sir, in Switzerland, high upon the Alps, on the very edge of the glacier, the highest flower that grows in Europe, is the rare *edelweiss*. It is in Europe; we are in America. And here in America, higher than shamrock or thistle, higher than rose, lily, or daisy, higher than the highest, blooms the perennial Mayflower. For, sir and gentlemen, it is the English-speaking race that has moulded the destiny of this continent; and the Puritan influence is the strongest influence that has acted upon it.

I am surely not here to assert that the men who have represented that influence have always been men whose spirit was blended of sweetness and light. I confess truly their hardness, their prejudice, their narrowness. All this I know: Charles Stuart could bow more blandly, could dance more gracefully, than John Milton; and the Cavalier king looks out from the canvas of Vandyck with a more romantic beauty of flowing love-locks than hung upon the brows of Edward Winslow, the only Pilgrim Father whose portrait comes down to us. But, sir, we estimate the cause beyond the man. Not even is the gracious spirit of Christianity itself measured by its confessors. If we would see the actual force, the creative power, of the Pilgrim

principle, we are not to look at the company who came over in the cabin of the Mayflower; we are to look upon the forty millions who fill this continent from sea to sea. The Mayflower, sir, brought seed and not a harvest. In a century and a half the religious restrictions of the Puritans had grown into absolute religious liberty, and in two centuries it had burst beyond the limits of New England, and John Carver of the Mayflower had ripened into Abraham Lincoln of the Illinois prairie. Why, gentlemen, if you would see the most conclusive proof of the power of this principle, you have but to observe that the local distinctive title of New Englanders has now become that of every man in the country. Every man who hears me, from whatever State in the Union, is, to Europe, a Yankee, and to-day the United States are but the "universal Yankee nation."

Do you ask me, then, what is this Puritan principle? Do you ask me whether it is as good for to-day as for yesterday; whether it is good for every national emergency; whether it is good for the situation of this hour? I think we need neither doubt nor fear. The Puritan principle in its essence is simply individual freedom. From that spring religious liberty and political equality. The free State, the free Church, the free School—these are the triple armor of American nationality, of American security. But the Pilgrims, while they have stood above all men for their idea of liberty, have always asserted liberty *under law* and never separated it from law. John Robinson, in the letter that he wrote the Pilgrims when they sailed, said these words, that well, sir, might be written in gold around the cornice of that future banqueting-hall to

which you have alluded, " You know that the image of the Lord's dignity and authority which the magistracy beareth is honorable in how mean person soever." This is the Puritan principle. Those men stood for liberty *under the law*. They had tossed long upon a wintry sea; their minds were full of images derived from their voyage; they knew that the will of the people alone is but a gale smiting a rudderless and sailless ship, and hurling it, a mass of wreck, upon the rocks. But the will of the people, subject to law, is the same gale filling the trim canvas of a ship that minds the helm, bearing it over yawning and awful abysses of ocean safely to port.

Now, gentlemen, in this country the Puritan principle in its development has advanced to this point, that it provides us a lawful remedy for every emergency that may arise. I stand here as a son of New England. In every fibre of my being am I a child of the Pilgrims. The most knightly of all the gentlemen at Elizabeth's court said to the young poet, when he would write an immortal song, " Look into thy heart and write." And I, sir and brothers, if, looking into my own heart at this moment, I might dare to think that what I find written there is written also upon the heart of my mother, clad in her snows at home, her voice in this hour would be a message spoken from the land of the Pilgrims to the capital of this nation—a message like that which Patrick Henry sent from Virginia to Massachusetts when he heard of Concord and Lexington: " I am not a Virginian, I am an American." And so, gentlemen, at this hour we are not Republicans, we are not Democrats, we are Americans.

The voice of New England, I believe, going to the capital, would be this, that neither is the Republican Senate to insist upon its exclusive partisan way, nor is the Democratic House to insist upon its exclusive partisan way, but Senate and House, representing the American people and the American people only, in the light of the Constitution and by the authority of the law, are to provide a way over which a President, be he Republican or be he Democrat, shall pass unchallenged to his chair. Ah, gentlemen—think not, Mr. President, that I am forgetting the occasion or its amenities. I am remembering the Puritans; I am remembering Plymouth Rock and the virtues that made it illustrious. But we, gentlemen, are to imitate those virtues, as our toast says, only by being greater than the men who stood upon that rock. As this gay and luxurious banquet to their scant and severe fare, so must our virtues, to be worthy of them, be greater and richer than theirs. And as we are three centuries older, so should we be three centuries wiser than they. Sons of the Pilgrims, you are not to level forests, you are not to war with savage men and savage beasts, you are not to tame a continent nor even found a State. Our task is nobler, diviner. Our task, sir, is to reconcile a nation. It is to curb the fury of party spirit. It is to introduce a loftier and manlier tone everywhere into our political life. It is to educate every boy and every girl, and then leave them perfectly free to go from any schoolhouse to any church. Above all, sir, it is to protect absolutely the equal rights of the poorest and the richest, of the most ignorant and the most intelligent citizen, and it is to stand forth, brethren, as a triple wall of brass around our native land, against

the mad blows of violence or the fatal dry-rot of fraud. And at this moment, sir, the grave and august shades of the forefathers whom we invoke bend over us in benediction as they call us to this sublime task. This, brothers and friends, this is to imitate the virtues of our forefathers; this is to make our day as glorious as theirs.

THE NEW SOUTH

On the 21st of December, 1886, Henry W. Grady, in response to an urgent invitation, delivered the following address at the banquet of the New England Club, New York:

“There was a South of slavery and secession—that South is dead. There is a South of union and freedom—that South, thank God, is living, breathing, growing every hour.” These words, delivered from the immortal lips of Benjamin H. Hill, at Tammany Hall, in 1866, true then and truer now, I shall make my text to-night.

Mr. President and Gentlemen: Let me express to you my appreciation of the kindness by which I am permitted to address you. I make this abrupt acknowledgment advisedly, for I feel that if, when I raise my provincial voice in this ancient and august presence, it could find courage for no more than the opening sentence, it would be well if in that sentence I had met in a rough sense my obligation as a guest, and had perished, so to speak, with courtesy on my lips and grace in my heart.

Permitted, through your kindness, to catch my second wind, let me say that I appreciate the significance of being the first Southerner to speak at this board, which bears the substance, if it surpasses the semblance, of original New England hospitality—and

honors the sentiment that in turn honors you, but in which my personality is lost, and the compliment to my people made plain.

I bespeak the utmost stretch of your courtesy to-night. I am not troubled about those from whom I come. You remember the man whose wife sent him to a neighbor with a pitcher of milk, and who, tripping on the top step, fell with such casual interruptions as the landings afforded into the basement, and while picking himself up, had the pleasure of hearing his wife call out: "John, did you break the pitcher?"

"No, I didn't," said John, "but I'll be dinged if I don't."

So, while those who call me from behind may inspire me with energy, if not with courage, I ask an indulgent hearing from me. I beg that you will bring your full faith in American fairness and frankness to judgment upon what I shall say. There was an old preacher once who told some boys of the Bible lesson he was going to read in the morning. The boys, finding the place, glued together the connecting pages. The next morning he read on the bottom of one page, "When Noah was one hundred and twenty years old he took unto himself a wife, who was"—then turning the page—"140 cubits long—40 cubits wide, built of gopherwood—and covered with pitch inside and out." He was naturally puzzled at this. He read it again, verified it, and then said: "My friends, this is the first time I ever met this in the Bible, but I accept this as an evidence of the assertion that we are fearfully and wonderfully made." If I could get you to hold such faith to-night I could proceed cheerfully to the task I otherwise approach with a sense of consecration.

Pardon me one word, Mr. President, spoken for the sole purpose of getting into the volumes that go out annually freighted with the rich eloquence of your speakers—the fact that the Cavalier, as well as the Puritan, was on the continent in its early days, and that he was “up and able to be about.” I have read your books carefully and I find no mention of the fact, which seems to me an important one for preserving a sort of historical equilibrium, if for nothing else.

Let me remind you that the Virginia Cavalier first challenged France on the continent—that Cavalier, John Smith, gave New England its very name, and was so pleased with the job that he has been handing his own name around ever since—and that while Miles Standish was cutting off men’s ears for courting a girl without her parents’ consent, and forbade men to kiss their wives on Sunday, the Cavalier was courting everything in sight, and that the Almighty had vouchsafed great increase to the Cavalier colonies, the huts in the wilderness being as full as the nests in the woods.

But having incorporated the Cavalier as a fact in your charming little books, I shall let him work out his own salvation, as he has always done, with engaging gallantry, and we will hold no controversy as to his merits. Why should we? Neither Puritan nor Cavalier long survived as such. The virtues and good traditions of both happily still live for the inspiration of their sons and the saving of the old fashion. But both Puritan and Cavalier were lost in the storm of the first Revolution, and the American citizen, supplanting both and stronger than either, took possession of the republic bought by their common blood and

fashioned to wisdom, and charged himself with teaching men government and establishing the voice of the people as the voice of God.

My friends, Dr. Talmage has told you that the typical American has yet to come. Let me tell you that he has already come. Great types, like valuable plants, are slow to flower and fruit. But from the union of these colonists, Puritans and Cavaliers, from the straightening of their purposes and the crossing of their blood slow perfecting through a century, came he who stands as the first typical American, the first who comprehended within himself all the strength and gentleness, all the majesty and grace of this republic—Abraham Lincoln. He was the sum of Puritan and Cavalier, for in his ardent nature were fused the virtues of both, and in the depths of his great soul the faults of both were lost. He was greater than Puritan, greater than Cavalier, in that he was American, and that in his honest form were first gathered the vast and thrilling forces of his ideal government—charging it with such tremendous meaning and elevating it above human suffering that martyrdom, though infamously aimed, came as a fitting crown to a life consecrated from the cradle to human liberty. Let us, each cherishing the traditions and honoring his fathers, build with reverent hands to the type of this simple but sublime life, in which all types are honored, and in our common glory as Americans there will be plenty and to spare for your forefathers and for mine.

Dr. Talmage has drawn for you, with a master's hand, the picture of your returning armies. He has told you how, in the pomp and circumstance of war, they came back to you, marching with proud and vic-

torious tread, reading their glory in a nation's eyes! Will you bear with me while I tell you of another army that sought its home at the close of the late war—an army that marched home in defeat and not in victory—in pathos and not in splendor, but in glory that equaled yours, and to hearts as loving as ever welcomed heroes home!

Let me picture to you the footsore Confederate soldier, as buttoning up in his faded gray jacket the parole which was to bear testimony to his children of his fidelity and faith, he turned his face southward from Appomattox in April, 1865. Think of him as ragged, half-starved, heavy-hearted, enfeebled by want and wounds, having fought to exhaustion, he surrenders his gun, wrings the hands of his comrades in silence, and, lifting his tear-stained and pallid face for the last time to the graves that dot old Virginia hills, pulls his gray cap over his brow and begins the slow and painful journey.

What does he find—let me ask you who went to your homes eager to find, in the welcome you had justly earned, full payment for four years' sacrifice—what does he find when, having followed the battle-stained cross against overwhelming odds, dreading death not half so much as surrender, he reaches the home he left so prosperous and beautiful? He finds his house in ruins, his farm devastated, his slaves free, his stock killed, his barns empty, his trade destroyed, his money worthless, his social system, feudal in its magnificence, swept away; his people without law or legal status; his comrades slain, and the burdens of others heavy on his shoulders. Crushed by defeat, his very traditions are gone. Without money, credit, em-

ployment, material, or training; and beside all this, confronted with the gravest problem that ever met human intelligence—the establishment of a status for the vast body of his liberated slaves.

What does he do—this hero in gray with a heart of gold? Does he sit down in sullenness and despair? Not for a day. Surely God, who had stripped him of his prosperity, inspired him in his adversity. As ruin was never before so overwhelming, never was restoration swifter.

The soldier stepped from the trenches into the furrow; horses that had charged Federal guns marched before the plow, and fields that ran red with human blood in April were green with the harvest in June; women reared in luxury cut up their dresses and made breeches for their husbands, and, with a patience and heroism that fit women always as a garment, gave their hands to work. There was little bitterness in all this. Cheerfulness and frankness prevailed. "Bill Arp" struck the key-note when he said: "Well, I killed as many of them as they did of me, and now I'm going to work." So did the soldier returning home after defeat and roasting some corn on the roadside who made the remark to his comrades: "You may leave the South if you want to, but I'm going to Sandersville, kiss my wife and raise a crop, and if the Yankees fool with me any more, I'll whip 'em again."

I want to say to General Sherman, who is considered an able man in our parts, though some people think he is a kind of careless man about fire, that from the ashes he left us in 1864 we have raised a brave and beautiful city; that somehow or other we have caught the sunshine in the bricks and mortar of our homes,

and have builded therein not one ignoble prejudice or memory.

But what is the sum of our work? We have found out that in the summing up the free negro counts more than he did as a slave. We have planted the school-house on the hilltop and made it free to white and black. We have sowed towns and cities in the place of theories, and put business above politics. We have challenged your spinners in Massachusetts and your ironmakers in Pennsylvania. We have learned that the \$400,000,000 annually received from our cotton crop will make us rich when the supplies that make it are home-raised. We have reduced the commercial rate of interest from 24 to 6 per cent, and are floating 4 per cent bonds. We have learned that one Northern immigrant is worth fifty foreigners and have smoothed the path to Southward, wiped out the place where Mason and Dixon's line used to be, and hung out the latchstring to you and yours.

We have reached the point that marks perfect harmony in every household, when the husband confesses that the pies which his wife cooks are as good as those his mother used to bake; and we admit that the sun shines as brightly and the moon as softly as it did before the war. We have established thrift in city and county. We have fallen in love with work. We have restored comfort to homes from which culture and elegance never departed. We have let economy take root and spread among us as rank as the crab-grass which sprung from Sherman's cavalry camps, until we are ready to lay odds on the Georgia Yankee as he manufactures relics of the battlefield in a one-story shanty and squeezes pure olive oil out of his cotton-

seed, against any down-easter that ever swapped wooden nutmegs for flannel sausage in the valleys of Vermont. Above all, we know that we have achieved in these " piping times of peace " a fuller independence for the South than that which our fathers sought to win in the forum by their eloquence or compel in the field by their swords.

It is a rare privilege, sir, to have had part, however humble, in this work. Never was nobler duty confided to human hands than the uplifting and upbuilding of the prostrate and bleeding South—misguided, perhaps, but beautiful in her suffering, and honest, brave, and generous always. In the record of her social, industrial, and political illustration we await with confidence the verdict of the world.

But what of the negro? Have we solved the problem he presents or progressed in honor and equity toward solution? Let the record speak to the point. No section shows a more prosperous laboring population than the negroes of the South, none in fuller sympathy with the employing and land-owning class. He shares our school fund, has the fullest protection of our laws, and the friendship of our people. Self-interest, as well as honor, demand that he should have this. Our future, our very existence, depend upon our working out this problem in full and exact justice. We understand that when Lincoln signed the emancipation proclamation, your victory was assured, for he then committed you to the cause of human liberty, against which the arms of man cannot prevail—while those of our statesmen who trusted to make slavery the cornerstone of the Confederacy doomed us to defeat as far as they could, committing us to a cause that

reason could not defend or the sword maintain in sight of advancing civilization.

Had Mr. Toombs said, which he did not say, "that he would call the roll of his slaves at the foot of Bunker Hill," he would have been foolish, for he might have known that whenever slavery became entangled in war it must perish, and that the chattel in human flesh ended forever in New England when your fathers—not to be blamed for parting with what didn't pay—sold their slaves to our fathers—not to be praised for knowing a paying thing when they saw it. The relations of the Southern people with the negro are close and cordial. We remember with what fidelity for four years he guarded our defenseless women and children, whose husbands and fathers were fighting against his freedom. To his eternal credit be it said that whenever he struck a blow for his own liberty he fought in open battle, and when at last he raised his black and humble hands that the shackles might be struck off, those hands were innocent of wrong against his helpless charges and worthy to be taken in loving grasp by every man who honors loyalty and devotion. Ruffians have maltreated him, rascals have misled him, philanthropists established a bank for him, but the South, with the North, protests against injustice to this simple and sincere people.

To liberty and enfranchisement is as far as law can carry the negro. The rest must be left to conscience and common sense. It must be left to those among whom his lot is cast, with whom he is indissolubly connected, and whose prosperity depends upon their possessing his intelligent sympathy and confidence. Faith has been kept with him, in spite of calumnious

assertions to the contrary by those who assume to speak for us or by frank opponents. Faith will be kept with him in the future, if the South holds her reason and integrity.

But have we kept faith with you? In the fullest sense, yes. When Lee surrendered—I don't say when Johnston surrendered, because I understand he still alludes to the time when he met General Sherman last as the time when he determined to abandon any further prosecution of the struggle—when Lee surrendered, I say, and Johnston quit, the South became, and has since been, loyal to this Union. We fought hard enough to know that we were whipped, and in perfect frankness accept as final the arbitrament of the sword to which we had appealed. The South found her jewel in the toad's head of defeat. The shackles that had held her in narrow limitations fell forever when the shackles of the negro slave were broken. Under the old régime the negroes were slaves to the South; the South was a slave to the system. The old plantation, with its simple police regulations and feudal habit, was the only type possible under slavery. Thus was gathered in the hands of a splendid and chivalric oligarchy the substance that should have been diffused among the people, as the rich blood under certain artificial conditions is gathered at the heart, filling that with affluent rapture but leaving the body chill and colorless.

The old South rested everything on slavery and agriculture, unconscious that these could neither give nor maintain healthy growth. The new South presents a perfect democracy, the oligarchs leading in the popular movement—a social system compact and closely knitted, less splendid on the surface, but stronger at

the core—a hundred farms for every plantation, fifty homes for every palace—and a diversified industry that meets the complex needs of this complex age.

The new South is enamored of her new work. Her soul is stirred with the breath of a new life. The light of a grander day is falling fair on her face. She is thrilling with the consciousness of growing power and prosperity. As she stands upright, full-statured, and equal among the people of the earth, breathing the keen air and looking out upon the expanded horizon, she understands that her emancipation came because through the inscrutable wisdom of God her honest purpose was crossed, and her brave armies were beaten.

This is said in no spirit of time-serving or apology. The South has nothing for which to apologize. She believes that the late struggle between the States was war and not rebellion; revolution and not conspiracy; and that her convictions were as honest as yours. I should be unjust to the dauntless spirit of the South and to my own convictions if I did not make this plain in this presence. The South has nothing to take back.

In my native town of Athens is a monument that crowns its central hill—a plain, white shaft. Deep cut into its shining side is a name dear to me above the names of men—that of a brave and simple man who died in brave and simple faith. Not for all the glories of New England, from Plymouth Rock all the way, would I exchange the heritage he left me in his soldier's death. To the foot of that I shall send my children's children to reverence him who ennobled their name with his heroic blood. But, sir, speaking from the shadow of that memory which I honor as I do

nothing else on earth, I say that the cause in which he suffered and for which he gave his life was adjudged by higher and fuller wisdom than his or mine, and I am glad that the omniscient God held the balance of battle in His Almighty hand and that human slavery was swept forever from American soil—that the American Union was saved from the wreck of war.

This message, Mr. President, comes to you from consecrated ground. Every foot of soil about the city in which I live is sacred as a battle-ground of the republic. Every hill that invests it is hallowed to you by the blood of your brothers who died for your victory, and doubly hallowed in defeat—sacred soil those hopeless, but undaunted, in defeat—sacred soil to all of us—rich with memories that make us purer and stronger and better—silent but staunch witnesses in its red desolation of the matchless glory of American hearts and the deathless valor of American arms—speaking an eloquent witness in its white peace and prosperity to the indissoluble union of American States and the imperishable brotherhood of the American people.

Now, what answer has New England to this message? Will she permit the prejudice of war to remain in the hearts of the conquerors, when it has died in the hearts of the conquered? Will she transmit this prejudice to the next generation, that in their hearts which never felt the generous ardor of conflict it may perpetuate itself? Will she withhold, save in strained courtesy, the hand which straight from his soldier's heart Grant offered to Lee at Appomattox? Will she make the vision of a restored and happy people, which gathered above the couch of your dying captain, filling

his heart with grace, touching his lips with praise, and glorifying his path to the grave—will she make this vision on which the last sight of his expiring soul breathed a benediction, a cheat and delusion?

If she does, the South, never abject in asking for comradeship, must accept with dignity its refusal; but if she does not refuse to accept in frankness and sincerity this message of good-will and friendship, then will the prophecy of Webster, delivered in this very society forty years ago amid tremendous applause, become true, be verified in its fullest sense, when he said: "Standing hand to hand and clasping hands, we should remain united as we have been for sixty years, citizens of the same country, members of the same government, united, all united now and united forever." There have been difficulties, contentions, and controversies, but I tell you that in my judgment,

" Those opened eyes,
Which like the meteors of a troubled heaven,
All of one nature, of one substance bred,
Did lately meet in th' intestine shock,
Shall now, in mutual well beseeming ranks,
March all one way."

THE BATTLE OF MANILA

Speech of Captain Joseph B. Coghlan, U. S. N., at a dinner of the Union League Club of New York City, April 21, 1899. The occasion was in honor of Captain Coghlan and the other officers of the cruiser Raleigh.

Mr. President and Gentlemen of the Union League: I thought I came here on the condition that I was to do no speaking. I get scared to death when called upon to speak, and sometimes I don't say what I want to.

So you will excuse me for everything out of the way that I say to-night. I was almost breathless as I listened to your President's speech. The more he spoke the more I thought: "Can he mean us?" As he went on and I recognized the name of our beloved chief, Admiral Dewey, I knew he was simply patting the admiral over our shoulders, and I thought to myself: "He can't do too much of that to suit me." We feel that we may be congratulated on our home-coming; not for what we have done, but for having served under Admiral Dewey. We love him and give him all the credit for what was done by the American fleet at Manila. If we thought it was possible by accepting this kind of reception to-night to take away from him one iota of this credit, we should feel that we were doing wrong.


We were with Dewey from the start to the finish, and on each day we learned more to love and respect him. The more we knew him, the more we knew that our country's honor was safe in his hands and that nothing in which he was engaged but would redound to the credit of our country. During the days after the great fight was over, he suffered the most outrageous nagging; on, on it went, day after day, rubbing clean through the flesh to the bone, but he always held himself and others up. I tell you it was magnificent. I must tell you of an incident which I think will be of interest. Our friend, Admiral von Diedrichs, sent an officer to complain of the restrictions placed upon him by Admiral Dewey. I happened to be nearby at the time, and I overheard the latter part of the conversation between this officer and our chief. I shall never forget it, and I want the people of the United States to

know what Admiral Dewey said that day. "Tell your admiral," said he, "his ships must stop where I say." "But we fly a flag," said the officer. "Those flags can be bought at half-a-dollar a yard anywhere," said the admiral, and there wasn't a bit of fun in his face when he said it either. "Any one can fly that flag," he continued. "The whole Spanish fleet might come on us with those colors if they wanted to. Therefore I must and will stop you. Tell your admiral I am blockading here. I am tired of the character of his conduct. I have made it as lenient as possible for him. Now the time has arrived when he must stop. Listen to me. Tell your admiral that the slightest infraction of these orders by himself or his officers will mean but one thing. Tell him what I say—it will mean war. Make no mistake when I say it will mean war. If you people are ready for war with the United States, you can have it in five minutes."

I am free to admit that the admiral's speech to that officer took my breath away. As that officer left to go back to his ship, he said to an American officer whose name I do not recall: "I think your admiral does not exactly understand." "Oh, yes he does," said the American officer. "He not only understands, but he means every word he says." That was the end of that bosh. After that the Germans didn't dare to breathe more than four times in succession without asking the admiral's permission. I don't know what I can talk to you about that will interest you unless I tell you some of our experiences at Manila, and I guess you know most of that already.

Well, I will. We held our last consultation at the dinner-hour the night before the fight, and the admiral

said that we were going in that night. I don't think any of us ate much dinner. We went in in a calm sea, although we were not so calm ourselves. About midnight we became a little anxious because we had arrived at a point where we had been informed there were lots of torpedoes anchored for us. Now torpedoes are all very well for the storehouse, but they are bad things to have floating around a ship. I've shot some myself, and they sometimes show an inclination to turn around and come back after you've started them. They're a loving sort of animal, and seem to hate to leave you. But when we got to the entrance and the Olympia went through without being blown up, we felt better; we felt positively brave when the Baltimore went through all right, and were ready to go right through a graveyard ourselves then. You see the men at the batteries were sleeping some four miles away that night, and they didn't get to their posts until the poor old Raleigh came along. I saw a flash and turning to an officer I said: "Hallo, what's that?" He told me that was the second time he had noticed it, and asked if he should fire. I told him not to as it was probably our friends, the insurgents, signalling to us; but when a shot came along a moment later, I knew better. Then a second shot came and it was in response to this that the Raleigh fired her first gun. It was the first shot fired by an American ship at Manila, and there is the man sitting over there that fired it. [Captain Coghlan pointed to Ensign Provost Babin who sat several chairs away from him. Ensign Babin was obliged to stand up and bow several times in response to prolonged applause.]



I tell you we were all on the *qui vive* that night ; our orders were to go in and anchor, eat breakfast at daylight, and wipe the Spanish fleet off the face of the earth ; but in the darkness we overran our reckoning, and at daylight we found ourselves right under the batteries of Manila. In the tropics the daylight comes like a flash, and this was a most beautiful morning. Our friends the enemy on shore opened upon us, and instead of the anticipated signal to take breakfast, the signal came from the flagship "Engage the enemy." This is where the old man came in. His whole pre-arranged plan had to be changed in a second. We all turned and stood towards the Spanish fleet, taking the fire of the batteries, without response, for thirty-seven minutes. When we finally got into the position we wanted, we opened up and you know what followed. We kept at it for two hours and a half, and at the end of that time there was no Spanish fleet.

This is a good time for me to correct a statement which I understand has been most persistently spread here at home, that we were short of ammunition. It was reported to Admiral Dewey that certain classes of guns were short. He asked me about it, because there were many guns of this class on my ship. I told him that we hadn't used thirty-five per cent of this ammunition in the whole fight, and Captain Gridley—rest his soul!—reported the same thing. We were not short of ammunition at any time. The report that we were has gone out ; but the proof that we were not has never been told. Why, we could have fought two battles that day without inconvenience. Well, the end of the battle found us in fine shape. The admiral told us we

had better go in and clean up the rest of our work, so we steamed toward shore and simply wiped out the batteries. After it was all over we felt "bully"; though I cannot say the same for the poor devils on the other side. It was at this time that, to our utter amazement, we saw Admiral Dewey steaming alone right under the batteries. I tell you when I saw him there in that position I went right after him with the Raleigh as fast as I could. Fortunately nothing happened. I agree with our President that it is given to every man to be brave; but I tell you given to few men is the bravery of our admiral. He not only has the physical courage, but also the moral courage to do anything in God's green world that he thinks will advance the interests of our country.

When he wished us to do anything, he did not hamper us with written orders—he just told us to do it, and we did it. He had the courage to try anything that was possible to be done; and we had the courage to try to do anything he said could be done. The North and South fought together at Manila Bay, as they did in Cuba; and I tell you together they are invincible. Not only is our country one to-day, but I tell you the English-speaking race is one also. The English people are with us heart and soul, and they were with us before we went to Manila, as I will show you. On the wharves at Hongkong, before we started for Manila, strange officers met us and introduced themselves, which you will agree is a very un-English proceeding. They wished us all manner of luck. One said to me: "By Jove, if you fellows don't wipe them out, don't come back to us, because we won't speak to

you." Afterward when we went back to Hongkong, one of those English officers said to me: "By Jove, we never gave you credit for style, but my! you can shoot!"

And now that is all that I have to say, except to ask a favor. I want you to join me in drinking the health of our chief, Admiral Dewey.



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